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THE LATE HERBERT SPENCER. (*See page 67.*)

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Review of Reviews.

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No. 1.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*The Year's
Record—
Macedonia.*

The year 1903 will be entitled to a very favorable place in the calendar of progress toward peace, amity, and coöperation among the civilized peoples of the earth. The twelvemonth has been unusually free from warfare or from sharp discord among the leading powers. The most harrowing and shocking scenes of the year have been those in certain districts of European Turkey known as Macedonia, where revolutionary activity on the part of the Bulgarian-speaking Christian population has led to repressive measures by the Turks, which have been without restraint in their bloodiness and devastation. While these disturbances have not in the international sense amounted to regular warfare, they have been more destructive than some of the wars that are regarded as landmarks of history.

*Reforms
Agreed Upon.*

No permanent solution for the trouble has been found as yet, but certain palliative measures are about to be tried, and it is at least to be hoped that they may have some degree of success. A number of months ago, the governments of Russia and Austria had united upon a plan for administrative reform in those parts of European Turkey largely occupied by a non-Mohammedan population. After much objection and delay, the Sultan and his government have finally accepted this programme. While preserving the nominal authority of the representatives of the Sultan, the plan vests the actual control in Christian officers, to be appointed on the motion of Russia and Austria, and to be present everywhere through the troubled districts to rectify abuses, and see that the series of reform measures which have been

powers interfered to rob Japan of her rightfully gained position of influence in Korea and Manchuria.

*A
Grave
Situation.* Russia, of course, does not want to fight

with Japan, but Russia intends nevertheless not only to retain and fully annex Manchuria, but also, by a gradual and quiet process of encroachment, to secure Korea also in due time. But Japan's geographical, ethnical, commercial, and historic relations with Korea are such that almost every son of the Mikado's empire would be willing to yield up his life in fierce combat rather than have Ko-

ANOTHER SCENE, SHOWING FUGITIVES FROM MACEDONIA WHO ARE SAFELY ACROSS THE BORDER.

accepted on paper are worked out in point of fact. Thus, some progress at least has been made toward remedying the Balkan trouble, and it is fortunate for peace in the larger sphere that Russia and Austria are maintaining their complete understanding about affairs in southeastern Europe. There can, however, be no full and final remedy for the Balkan troubles short of the emancipation of those Macedonian provinces from even a nominal Turkish rule.

*Japan
overruns
Russia.*

Another situation which has compelled the anxious attention of the world during the past year has been that in the far East, which has kept Japan in a state of tension that has caused many observers to regard war with Russia as inevitable. Japan's war with China in 1894, which first revealed to the world that island empire's new naval and military prowess, was waged to settle disputes about Korea. If Japan and China had been left to arrange the results of that war without European interference, the present strain between Japan and Russia would not have arisen. Unfortunately, a coalition at that time, led by Russia, deprived Japan of most of the reasonable fruits of her victory. If Russia had been let alone to settle with Turkey the results of the war of 1877, all these recent Macedonian disturbances would have been averted. England was the chief offender at that time, her motives being both selfish and ignoble. But Russia herself was the chief offender in a parallel case when, after the conclusion of Japan's short and brilliant campaign against China, the European

made a Russian province. It is the opinion of many impartial experts that if war should occur promptly, Japan would have the advantage, her fleet and her army being in full readiness for action. But Japan's only hope for permanent success would seem to lie in a policy of extreme swiftness and boldness. Such a policy, for instance, would involve the seizure and annexation of Korea, and would be followed by war with Russia only as Russia should dispute such annexation, and should attempt to drive the Japanese out. Having actually seized and occupied Korea, Japan might propose to negotiate with Russia on the basis of acknowledging Russia's permanent authority in Manchuria in return for a like acknowledgment regarding Korea. It is fairly probable that if Japan were bold enough to take such a course, and to act upon it with the utmost vigor and without a particle of delay, her very audacity might prevent a protracted and bloody war, and might lead to a permanent and valuable solution of the far Eastern question.

*If Japan
Should Seize
Korea.* The present political status of Korea is not entitled to any great consideration. The country has a quasi-

independence, with a shadowy kind of suzerainty vested in China, while England, Russia, Japan, and the United States have all of them for years had each its own peculiar kind of influence over the Korean dynasty and government at Seoul. Japan's acquisition of Korea would probably be a good thing for everybody concerned. Russia's interests in Manchuria are so

great that all nations will probably accept her domination in that province. On the basis of a Russian Manchuria and a Japanese Korea, the interested powers of Europe, Asia, and America might properly agree that there should be no further reduction or spoliation of the Chinese Empire, but might use their influence, largely under Japanese leadership, to bring about a more liberal and modern system of government in China, together with better facilities for international trade. Certainly it would seem better that Japan, instead of flying into a war with Russia over some intangible disputes relating to alleged Russian aggression, should abandon a negative for a positive position and shift the responsibility for warfare on her opponent.

Doing Means Peace—and Russia! Although the English people are evidently in great sympathy with Japan, they are much afraid of being involved through their treaty of alliance, and have been doing all in their power to prevent a war between Japan and Russia. The French, in like manner, fearing to be drawn into war through their alliance with Russia, have been quietly taking counsel with the English in the interest of peace. While every month that passes makes it less likely that there will be a war, it must also be said that delay is constantly strengthening Russia's position as against Japan, and that if the Japanese hope to retain or achieve any great position in Korea, they must act with audacity and promptness. As for the so-called "Korean Empire," it is not destined to keep a separate position for many years longer. If peace should be maintained, Korea will

VISCOUNT KATSURA, PREMIER OF JAPAN.

(A man toward whom the eyes of the whole world were directed last month.)

become Russian. If war occurs, Korea will even then become Russian in the end, unless the Japanese boldly declare a policy of Korean annexation, in which case there is a very fair chance indeed that Korea would, while keeping her distinctive characteristics, become a part of the Japanese Empire. At Tokyo, last month, the war talk was intense and the situation as somber as possible, while at St. Petersburg there seemed no belief at all that war was likely. Japanese marines were landed, on December 13, at a point on the southwest coast of Korea, to suppress a riot where the interests of Japanese merchants were involved, and where the scene of trouble was a foreign concession. Russia made no objection to this action,



MAP ILLUSTRATING THE KOREAN AND CHINESE QUESTIONS.

before the representative body, and delivered a brief speech on the conditions of the empire. This so-called "speech from the throne," of course, was prepared for the Mikado by the prime minister, Viscount Katsura. The speech was of only a few sentences, and was entirely colorless. It began as follows: "My lords and gentlemen: It gives us profound cause for rejoicing that the friendly relations between our empire and other powers ever continue to grow." Referring to what was called "the important diplomatic matter of maintaining peace in the Orient and of our rights," the Mikado merely declared that Japan's ministers abroad were instructed "carefully to attend to their duties." So vague a declaration was highly unsatisfactory, and the House representatives met for the purpose of considering a reply. An answer was drawn up by the president of the House, was

THE "SHIKISHIMA," A MODERN JAPANESE BATTLESHIP.

This marks a radical change in the methods of parliamentary government in Japan, since the assembly has never before in any manner replied to the Emperor's speech except by way of a humble vote of thanks. The Cabinet met at once and decided to endeavor to secure a reconsideration of the bold action of the House; but since the House refused to recede in the least from its position, the Parliament was not only adjourned, but dissolved by authority of the Emperor.

It will be necessary, therefore, to hold new elections, and it will be at least two months before a Parliament assembles again. Meanwhile the Katsura cabinet

*The
People
Are for War.*

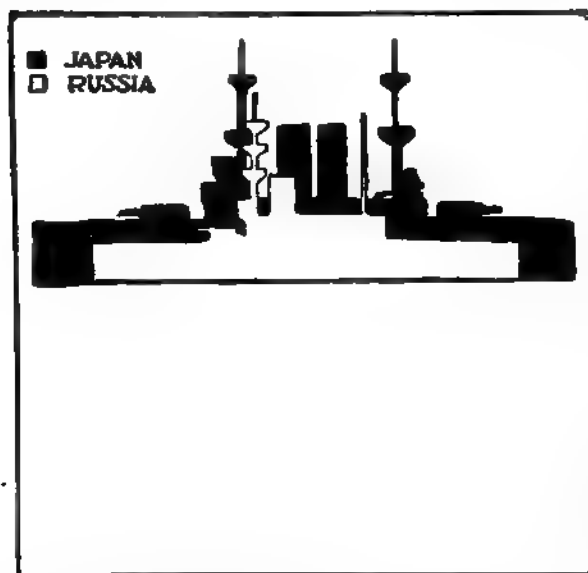
evidently holds the Mikado's confidence, and it is to be remembered that the Japanese administrative government is an affair of the Crown rather than of the Parliament; in other words, it resembles the German rather than the English system. The incident showed that the country is for war, while the Mikado and the cabinet are trying to maintain peace. There were constant reports through December that a diplomatic basis of agreement had been reached between Russia and Japan, and that the final signing of a treaty would, within a few days, completely remove all danger of war; but such statements were evidently founded upon surmise. Nothing indeed could have been more conflicting and confusing than the news reports and the current comments of the press all through the past two months or more upon the far Eastern situation. That great war preparation had been made by Japan was evident, and that Russia was fast increasing her naval and military resources on the Pacific, was likewise not in dispute; but both governments were evidently desirous to avoid war, and, moreover, wars that are so much heralded do not usually take place.

A Timely Exposition of the far Eastern Problems. The best statement to be found of the origin and nature of the rivalry between Russia and Japan concerning Korea and Manchuria will be found in Senator Beveridge's new book, published last month, called "The Russian Advance," which has ap-

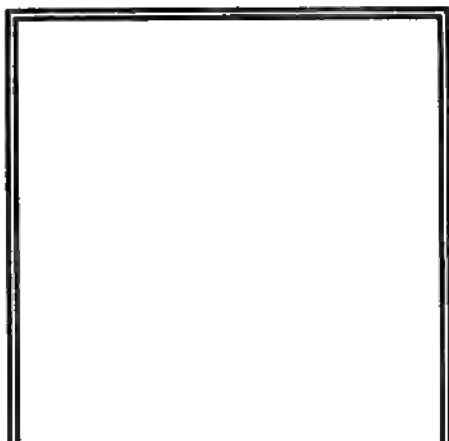
RUSSIAN ARTILLERY IN ACTION IN MANCHURIA.

peared at a highly opportune time. We have recently had many books about Russia, and several upon the Russians in Manchuria and the far East; but perhaps nothing has yet been written that is at once so brilliant and vivid in its descriptions, and so cogent and convincing in its interpretation of the Russian movement, as this remarkable book by the Indiana Senator. While sympathetic and appreciative in its treatment of the Russian position in Manchuria, Senator Beveridge's book is none the less fair toward the Japanese, and states well what they claim, besides showing their readiness and ability to assert their case. While not regarding war as inevitable, Mr. Beveridge evidently thinks it more likely to occur than not.

Meanwhile Russia seems determined to keep her prestige and influence at Peking, and her control over Chinese railway concessions is said to be extending to the central and southern parts of the country as well as to the northern parts. It is reported that a new Russian line from Peking to a point in Siberia is to be built, providing a much shorter and more direct route than the present branch line. In the background of all immediate disputes lies the profoundly important question whether Russia or Japan is to have the most influence upon the future development of China. The influence that England might have had has already been lost through indecision at critical moments. Just now the British Government seems bent upon recovering a little of its waning prestige in Asia, and particularly at Peking, by sending a military expedition into Tibet by way of the northern provinces of India. Tibet is nominally a part of the Chinese Empire, but it is vir-



(Diagram showing, first, the comparison of the Japanese and Russian fleets at present in the far East; and, secondly, the comparison should Russia send all her fleet to the far East.)



Admiral Yamamoto, Minister of the Navy.

General Terauchi, Minister of War.

THESE ARE THE TWO MEN WHO WILL DIRECT THE OPERATION OF THE JAPANESE FORCES IN CASE OF A WAR WITH RUSSIA.

tually an independent country, and is the most exclusive and little known of all inhabited regions.

*The English
invading
Tibet.*

The English claim that the Tibetans have not been living up to certain agreements or customs relating to the limited caravan trade between their country and India, and Colonel Younghusband, with a force of two hundred to three hundred men, some months ago crossed the Tibetan border, and awaited the coming of representatives from the Grand Lhama to negotiate with him. But negotiations were refused, and the Tibetans were inhospitable. It has been decided, therefore, that Colonel Younghusband shall be given reinforcements and sent well into the heart of the country toward the so-called "forbidden city"

of Lhasa. It is complained by Russia and other continental newspapers that the English are proposing to establish a protectorate over Tibet, in order to head off Russian advance in that direction. The English do not admit this, and yet it is difficult to justify their invasion of Tibet on their plea of seeking to carry on certain negotiations about commerce. Tibet, which lies upon a plateau 12,000 to 15,000 feet high, is a region of sparse products of any sort and of exceedingly limited commerce. It has been chiefly interesting to the European world hitherto by reason of its comparative inaccessibility and its much-advertised mysteries. The Russian advance by way of Turkestan might in the near future bring the Russian Empire down to Tibet on the northwest, and a Russian protectorate over Tibet

New Russian railroad station at Peking, China.

The railroad in proximity to the city walls at Peking.

THESE PICTURES SHOW BETTER THAN PAGES OF TEXT WHAT GIVES RUSSIA HER INFLUENCE AT THE CHINESE CAPITAL.

LHASA, THE FAMOUS "FORBIDDEN CITY," CAPITAL OF TIBET, AND RESIDENCE OF THE GRAND LAMA.

(From a series of photographs in the *Illustrated London News*, by M. Narzounof, the only pilgrim who has ever brought back photographs from this mysterious city. Our illustration shows the concourse of buildings and temples crowning the sacred mountain, Mar-bo-ri.)

would certainly place the great power of the North in a very unwelcome proximity to India. It would seem likely enough, therefore, that the English expedition is dominated by political rather than by commercial motives. It is not supposed that the Tibetans could make very effective resistance against modern troops. Nevertheless, English expeditions into despised regions have only too frequently come to grief. The Tibetans are exceedingly fanatical, and must surely resent bitterly the approach of an English expedition to the sacred capital of Buddhism. It is reported that they have been distributing rifles.

One little African war, however, the English have on hand, in the form of a new expedition against the Mad Mullah in Somaliland. The position of the French in northern Africa has been strengthened to a marked degree in the past year, and it is understood that they are to have paramount influence in the future solution of the Morocco problem. The French engineers are constructing railways and opening trade routes in the African regions under their control. It is to be remarked, moreover, that the French have just completed a railway across their great African island dominion of Madagascar. The Belgians also are doing some remarkable

Progress in Africa. In the great continent of Africa, the year 1903 has, upon the whole, been one of peace, and there have been many indications of modern progress. The regions devastated by the South African War are gradually though painfully being restored to agriculture and industry. The gold mines of the Rand have begun to produce again, and in the past year their output was a little more than half that of the year immediately preceding the war. The Milner-Jameson party was defeated by the Dutchmen of the Africander Bond in the recent Cape Colony elections, but this means no serious setback to British policies. In other parts of Africa, British undertakings have gone forward prosperously, this being especially true regarding Egypt and the British part of the Sudan.

ON THE LINE OF THE NEW MADAGASCAR RAILROAD.
(Construction work at the entrance to the Mongo-Vengo Tunnel.)

railway building in the Upper Congo country. The British line northward from Bulawayo is already within a few miles of the Zambesi River, which forms the northern boundary of what is known as Rhodesia; and doubtless within a very few years the line will be advanced across British Central Africa to the boundaries of the Congo Free State. Thus, Mr. Rhodes' great conception of a connected rail route from Cape Colony to Cairo will in due time be realized, although it is not likely to be an all-British route, because it must traverse the Congo Free State. The possibility that the American negro may henceforth have a large and honorable part in the opening up of Africa is a topic that has attracted more attention in this past year than ever before.

America and the Arbitration Movement. In the record of the past year, the part played by the United States in matters of international relationship and concern will redound greatly to the credit of this country. It was an achievement of far-reaching significance to have persuaded Germany, England, and France to give up their blockade of the Venezuelan coasts and allow matters in dispute to be settled by diplomacy and arbitration. The importance of the affair lay in the principles involved and in the precedent created, rather than in the magnitude of the intrinsic issue. Venezuela agreed to pay the claims by setting aside for that purpose a sufficient share of the custom-house receipts, after the justice of the claims themselves had been duly passed upon by impartial outside umpires. It was further agreed by all concerned to refer to the Hague tribunal certain principles of international law that were involved; and thus the first important use to be made of the Hague court happened to be in a case which called together the representatives of perhaps a dozen different governments. Moreover, it was because President Roosevelt declined to settle the questions in dispute, and insisted upon their being referred to the Hague, that this first use was made of that instrumentality for the legal settlement of international disputes. For this action the United States is likely by future historians to be accorded a larger praise and credit than most people would now think possible; for few now appreciate fully the wide bearings of that first step.

Conciliation Illustrated in the Alaska Case.

Another thing for which the United States will be accorded credit has been the manner of the settlement of the Alaska boundary. As the affair turned out, it had its aspects of comedy; nevertheless, it was

honorable and creditable that it should have been settled and disposed of. In essence, the situation was this: The British Government had set up a claim to a strip of American territory along the Alaskan frontier, and the matter was finally referred to a tribunal in which the decision was given by the Lord Chief Justice of England himself, who informed his own government that it had no case at all. Everybody in the United States, of course, was aware that the British Government had no case, and it was also known that high British authorities had so declared without reserve. It was, therefore, on the face of it all, as remarkable that the English Government should still have pressed its claims, as that the United States should have consented to allow its title to be brought into controversy before a tribunal. But, if under such circumstances the proceedings before the joint tribunal lacked something of genuineness and deep sincerity, they provided a means by which the British Government might give final effect to what was a foregone conclusion, and do Canada the favor of dispelling once for all her futile hopes. Canada is now full of other topics.

Anglo-American Amity.

The settlement of the Alaska boundary question has cleared the way for the consideration of various matters affecting the mutual welfare of Canada and the United States. If there are any unsettled disputes of any nature whatsoever between England and the United States, they are too inconsiderable to be known by the average citizen of either country. Never, indeed, since the revolution of the American colonies has this country been upon terms of such complete amity with the mother country as at the opening of this new year 1904. That being the case, it would seem a very good time indeed to revive the project of a general arbitration treaty between the two countries. Such a treaty was signed several years ago, but was not finally ratified. Now that England and France have shown their confidence in one another by signing a treaty recognizing the principles of arbitration, even though of a limited nature, it would seem as if England and the United States might at least go that far.

Time for an Arbitration Treaty.

There are two main classes of disputes between nations: first, those of an essentially judicial nature, involving questions of fact and of the interpretation of treaties and laws; and, second, questions of a graver kind, involving territory or matters regarded as vital to a nation's honor or very existence. The first sort of dispute ought always to be settled by arbitration. The Anglo-

French treaty signed in the middle of October provides that in case of failure to settle such disputes by diplomacy, they should be referred to the permanent court of arbitration at the Hague. No attempt is made to provide for the settlement of questions of a vital nature. In the rejected Anglo-American treaty of 1897, questions involving territory and other matters of vital concern were to be submitted to a joint commission consisting of three English judges and three American judges, whose decision was to be final if as many as five of the six were in agreement. A plan somewhat similar to that has just been followed in the settlement of the Alaska boundary; while, on the other hand, principles capable of judicial determination in the Venezuela-claims affair (upon which England and the United States were at variance) have been left for settlement to the Hague tribunal. It is now proposed that a new Anglo-American treaty, like that of 1897, should keep this sharp distinction between questions referable to the Hague and matters of a more vital kind to be dealt with between the two nations by commissions, which are in effect courts of conciliation.

*Mr. Barclay's
Unofficial
Mission.*

The pioneer in bringing about the Anglo-French treaty was Mr. Thomas Barclay, a prominent English lawyer of London and Paris. Mr. Barclay came to this country with the Mosely Educational Commission some weeks ago, and has remained here promoting with much persuasiveness and apparent success the idea of a new treaty between England and the United States. If this were concluded, it ought to be entirely possible in turn to bring about a similar treaty between the United States and France. The treaty of 1897, for which Lord Salisbury and President Cleveland were responsible, had the support of a large majority of the Senate, the vote being 42 to 26. But since a two-thirds majority was necessary to ratification, the treaty failed. Causes which then might have led certain of the minority Senators to vote against the treaty, have now been removed; and it would seem likely enough that a treaty somewhat similar to that one might be framed which would have practically everybody's good will in advance, and would be ratified with something like unanimity. It is to be noted that the Anglo-French treaty, which finally came about with so little agitation, was the result of a very great amount of careful and systematic organization on the part of English and French chambers of commerce, and other public bodies, so that both governments acted with the assurance that the step was one generally de-

sired by business men and people of intelligence. Much of this organization was due to the efforts of Mr. Barclay.

Another item to the credit of the year 1903, is the completion of the project of trade reciprocity with Cuba. The final vote in the Senate occurred on December 16, according to an agreement made in No-

MR. THOMAS BARCLAY, A DISTINGUISHED ANGLO-FRENCH
LAWYER.

(An apostle of international arbitration.)

vember, the debate ending with brilliant speeches for the bill by Senator Spooner and against it by Senator Bailey. The division of the Senate was upon party lines, although one Republican Senator,—Bard, of California,—voted against the reciprocity bill, while seven Democrats voted in favor of it, the measure being carried by 57 to 18. Although the Democratic Senators had insisted upon taking a number of weeks to debate the subject, they had not succeeded, when all was done, in giving the country any simple, clear impression as to the reasons for their opposition. Mr. John Sharp Williams, the new leader of the Democrats in the House, on the contrary, had made the whole country understand him perfectly when he declared that the Democratic party was so opposed to the Dingley tariff that it would readily support any reciprocity measure whatever that the Republicans might bring for-

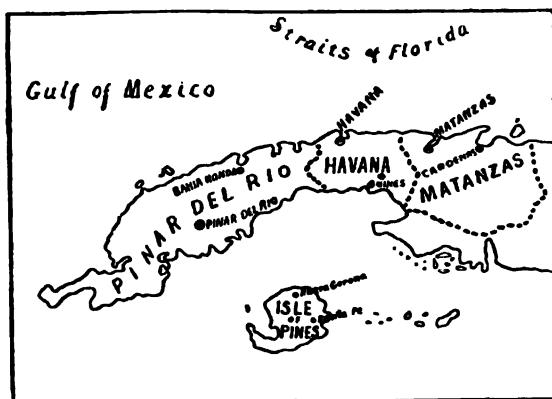
ward, for the partial breaking-down of their high protective wall. It was provided that reciprocity should go into effect ten days after the signing of the bill; and so the new year begins with the new regulations in full force. The new Cuban sugar crop is ready for the market, but its owners had refrained from shipping it because they were waiting to get the benefits of the 20 per cent. rebate on the Dingley tariff rates. The crop will now flow rapidly to the United States, and the money that it brings will be invested largely in the purchase of American goods, which, in turn, will have the benefit of from 20 to 40 per cent. reduction of tariff rates in entering the Cuban ports.

Cuba is to Have the Isle of Pines. Another important matter which had been left open for future negotiation in our earlier dealings with Cuba is also now in the way of final settlement, although awaiting the formality of a vote by the Senate. This has to do with the ownership of the Isle of Pines. It was the contention of many Americans that this Spanish island was not necessarily to be regarded as belonging to Cuba, and that it might very properly be retained by the United States. While the American provisional government was in control at Havana, there was a widespread impression that the American Government would retain the Isle of Pines when Cuba was finally made over to the government of the new republic. Many Americans accordingly went there, and it is said that considerably more than half of the land of the island now belongs to resident English-speaking people from this country, who had every reason to believe that they were to live under their own flag. The authorities at Washington, however, were some time ago convinced that Cuba was justified in claiming that this island, lying south of the

province of Pinar del Rio, ought to be regarded as a Cuban possession. This decision was creditable to the sense of justice of our government, inasmuch as Cuba was entirely at our mercy in the matter. The fact of Cuba's ownership has been acknowledged in the form of a treaty in which we cede and make over to Cuba all claims to sovereignty. This treaty was sent to the Senate in November, and was reported favorably by the Committee on Foreign Relations. The Americans, however, living in the Isle of Pines had some grievances to be remedied, and some rights to be protected; and ratification was delayed while our minister at Havana, Mr. Squires, undertook to secure certain promises from the Cuban Government. These had to do with the proper administration and improvement of the Isle of Pines. The Cuban Government proceeded promptly, last month, to make good its omissions and repair its neglects. Thus, doubtless, the treaty will pass promptly when Congress sits again after the holiday vacation.

The Extra and Regular Sessions of Congress.

The Democratic members of the Senate having refused to allow a vote on the reciprocity bill to be taken during the extra session which was called for that purpose, the Senators would have been glad to adjourn before Thanksgiving Day, not to return until the opening of the regular session on Monday, December 7. But, if it takes two houses to pass a bill, it also takes two houses to adjourn Congress; and the resolute new Speaker, Mr. Cannon, supported by his able lieutenants and his working majority in the House of Representatives, refused to permit the extra session to end without having accomplished the thing that brought it together. And so it came to pass that the extra session ended where the regular session began,—namely, at noon on the seventh day of December. The question whether or not there could be said to be an interval of "recess" between the two sessions arose in a manner not merely for metaphysical argument, but for purposes of very practical importance, General Wood's and other recess military appointments being affected. But to this topic we shall revert in a later paragraph. In one sense, the extra session had indeed accomplished its purpose; for it had not only secured the passage of the reciprocity bill in the House, but it had secured in the Senate a unanimous agreement to allow the bill to be passed on December 16. If there had been no extra session, the Senate would undoubtedly have carried the Cuban debate well beyond the holiday vacation, and might have postponed the vote until the end of January, or even later.



MAP SHOWING ISLE OF PINES, RESERVED BY UNITED STATES TWO YEARS AGO, NOW CEDED TO CUBA.

*The
Forthcoming
Panama
Debate.*

This would have deferred inconveniently the final action upon another matter of even greater urgency,—namely, the discussion and vote upon the ratification of the canal treaty negotiated with the new republic of Panama. This debate must begin in good earnest when Congress resumes business after January 4; and since most of the opposition Senators will probably want to talk a very long time, it is not easy to believe that a vote can be reached for several weeks. Some of the opposition is due to the old preference that dies so hard for the Nicaragua route, while some of it is on party grounds, and still more of it is probably inspired by those transportation interests which have for so many years been at work to produce deadlock and delay, because they are opposed to any canal whatsoever. The arrangement that has been made, however, with Panama is justly popular with sensible, patriotic, and well-informed people of all parties, in every section of the country; and it is taken for granted that the treaty will be ratified in pursuance of a national policy that has no real partisan

bearings. It is true that the prompt settlement of the canal question, and the speedy beginning of construction work, would probably be regarded as somewhat enhancing the popularity of President Roosevelt's administration,—a thing which many politicians would not like on the eve of a Presidential campaign. But if the President's opponents should block the treaty on partisan or personal grounds, they would inevitably make the subject a leading one in the campaign, with little doubt as to the verdict of public opinion. The best thing, therefore, for everybody concerned is to ratify the treaty as quickly as possible, and to treat the subject as one virtually settled (as in fact it was) when, last year, by the terms of the Spooner act Congress deliberately selected the Panama route, appropriated \$40,000,000 for the French company, voted the requisite money to pay for the right of way, and authorized the President to go ahead. Those instructions of Congress have been complied with more perfectly, both in letter and in spirit, by this new treaty with Panama than by that which the Bogota Government rejected.

NORTH AMERICA AND PANAMA.

UNCLE SAM (to Colombia): "Hands off."
From *Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam).

THE DOG-CATCHER.

(A German view of Uncle Sam's recent action in Central America.)—From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

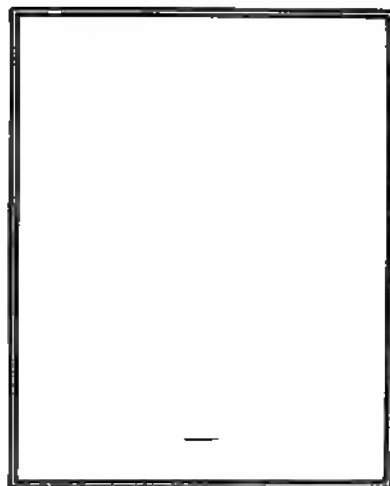
whole contention of these critics of the administration must rest upon the doctrine that the politicians at Bogota had rights in the Isthmus of Panama superior to the rights of all others; whereas, it is obvious to those who know the facts that those politicians at Bogota had no rights whatever, except such as were voluntarily conceded to them, or such as they could maintain by force.

Substantial interests are satisfied. The real parties in interest at Panama were four, namely, first, the people who owned property and lived there; second, the United States, which for half a century has protected the only thing which has given the Isthmus importance,—its transit facilities; third, the French people, who had invested several hundred million francs in the unfinished canal; and, fourth, the commercial interests of the world to be subserved by the completion and opening of the maritime passage. Mr. Loomis, the Assistant Secretary of State, in a remarkable address made last month before the Quill Club of New York, declared that the object of the Bogota Government in defeating the treaty was to gain time, in order to nullify the French franchise, appropriate the assets, and sell on their own account to the United States

THIS SCENE SHOWS THE POPULAR DEMONSTRATION BEFORE THE STATUE OF CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, AT COLON, WHEN THE NEW REPUBLIC WAS DECLARED AND THE FLAG OF PANAMA WAS DISPLAYED. FROM *L'Illustration* (Paris).

The Home Critics of the Panama Solution.

The elaborate discussion carried on with much pedantry and many fine phrases in a few newspapers,—the aim of which is to discredit the United States for having been prepared to act promptly in recognizing the independence of Panama, and in protecting the Isthmus against assault by Colombia,—is not worth attempting to answer, for the very simple reason that it is the sophisticated criticism of people who did not want anything done. The only answer worth making is that the American Government acted as it did because that was the course which seemed desirable to it. It is enough to answer that it was a course for which our government is ready to assume responsibility in face of all comers. Since (1) the Panama people had every possible right to cut loose from Colombia if they could accomplish it; and since (2), for objects of mutual advantage, the United States and Panama had every right to enter immediately into a treaty of offensive and defensive alliance, the sole question to be considered, from the American point of view, is whether some other course of action would have been better policy. The



MR. WILLIAM I. SUTHERLAND.

(Who went to Panama last month as American minister.)

or some other purchaser. Mr. Loomis is a man of guarded statements, and he would not have made such assertions without good reason. He also developed the idea that such a course of delay might have been followed with various complications at the Isthmus,—all of which were averted by the promptness with which the Bogota politicians were eliminated altogether. It

is seldom, indeed, that a solution is found for a great international problem which completely satisfies so many parties in interest and disappoints so few.

*The President's
Review of
the Facts.*

President Roosevelt devoted nearly one-third of his annual message to a review of this Panama situation. He shows plainly that under the treaty of 1846 we acquired permanent and substantial rights of transit by any mode whatsoever across the Isthmus. It may be remarked, parenthetically, that leading international lawyers have held that it would have been quite sufficient for us to buy out the assets of the French company and proceed to dig the canal without any franchise whatsoever from Colombia, merely arranging from time to time such questions regarding police, sanitation, etc., as should arise. The President, however, does not dwell unduly upon our rights under the treaty of 1846, but presents the circumstances under which the treaty was rejected at Bogota, the revolution was accomplished in Panama, and the policy of the United States was shaped to meet these altered conditions. The President gives what he calls a partial list of the revolutions, rebellions, riots, and other outbreaks that have occurred in the period since 1846. He cites fifty-three. Nothing could better show that Colombia is not competent to exercise authority over the Isthmus of Panama. There will in the future be no such list of isthmian outbreaks. The nations of Europe have one after another promptly recognized the independence of the republic of Panama and entered upon diplomatic relations. The South American countries, being neighbors of Colombia, have naturally and properly been a little slow and cautious, although Brazil and several others had by the middle of December made due recognition, and these examples will be universally followed within a month or two.

*Colombia
and the
Mission of
General Reyes.*

Even from the ports of Colombia there was soon resumed a movement of passengers and traffic to Panama under circumstances virtually implying acceptance of the existing facts. It was not to be supposed that Colombia, which had been playing a game for large stakes, would immediately accept the result without an effort to get some compensation. The Colombian Government can, if it chooses, declare war against the United States. But this would be an extremely foolish thing to do, since it could hurt nobody but the Colombians themselves. It is hard to find out who or what constitutes the Government of Colombia. There has apparently been no authority

SEN. FRANK B. LOOMIS, OF OHIO.
(First Assistant Secretary of State.)

there for some years, except that exercised arbitrarily by Dr. Marroquin, who at one time was vice-president, but who usurped authority and has ruled as a military despot. It must not be supposed by good Americans that when Marroquin ordered the election of a Colombian congress to act upon the Hay-Herran treaty there was any such thing as a real election. It is understood that in Colombia the voting is done by the officials themselves,—or by the soldiers, who vote as they are told, but whose vote in any case would be counted as the higher officials might choose. There arrived in this country from Colombia the chief general of the army, one Rafael Reyes, late in November, and he came with credentials from Dr. Marroquin as a special envoy. He was well received by Secretary Hay and the administration, but the public could not ascertain the precise nature of the efforts he was supposed to be making on behalf of the government of his country. While he was at Washington, last month, there came the news that he had been elected President of Colombia. The news regarding this election is entirely obscure, and it must be assumed that there was no real election, but only an arrangement and an announcement,—intended, perhaps, to add prestige to the mission of General Reyes to the United States. A more probable surmise would be that this doughty general, whose reputation for courage has been well earned in many revolutionary com-

bata, is here in the hope of trying to arrange for the acknowledgment of Panama's independence on some financial basis.

Rumors of Hostile Action. General Reyes has said that until his mission in this country was fulfilled there would be no attempt on the part of Colombia to regain Panama by force. There were, however, constant rumors last month

so he states in a summary way what has recently been done to regulate domestic commerce, supervise corporations, and maintain the authority of the Government in the enforcement of the anti-trust laws and the work of the Interstate Commerce Commission. He also sets forth, in a very satisfactory manner, the purposes and methods of the new department of Commerce and Labor. Secretary Cortelyou's first report is certainly a model of clear statement as to the work thus far accomplished, and the aims and principles that are guiding the development of this great branch of the executive service of the national government. President Roosevelt sums up the thing well when he says :

The Department of Commerce and Labor will be not only the clearing house for information regarding the business transactions of the nation, but the executive arm of the Government, to aid in strengthening our domestic and foreign markets, in perfecting our transportation facilities, in building up our merchant marine, in preventing the entrance of undesirable immigrants, in improving commercial and industrial conditions, and in bringing together on common ground those necessary partners in industrial progress—capital and labor.

When the new department was created, it was feared in some quarters and hoped in others that its chief work was going to be that of investigating and exposing the trusts,—with zeal, if not with discretion. Some newspaper critics have indeed been referring contemptuously to the department as not having demonstrated thus far any reason for its being.

GEN. RAFAEL REYES.

(Who came to Washington, on November 28, with diplomatic credentials from Colombia, and has since been declared for president-elect of the Colombian republic.)

of the gathering of Colombian troops at points from which it was believed that the Isthmus might possibly be invaded. American troops were in readiness to be transported to the Isthmus in case of need; but it was thought probable that the marines already in that vicinity, reinforced by others soon to sail, would be ample to protect Panama and keep the railroad open. The nature of the country is such that it is thought practically impossible for Colombian troops to make their way by land as far as Colon or the railway line; and our navy makes it impossible for them to transport soldiers by sea.

The Presidential Message. The President, near the opening of his message, remarks that "with a nation as with a man, the most important things are those of the household;" and

Mr. Cortelyou's First Report. The good citizen, however, merely wants to know the truth; and he will be abundantly satisfied if he reads for himself this first report of Secretary Cortelyou on his preliminary work,—a document as fascinating in its array of facts and its constructive grasp as it is entirely convincing in its business-like views. Mr. Cortelyou has the talents of a model administrator; and grouped in his department one finds a series of great bureaus, each one of which is immensely creditable to the governmental work of the United States,—such, for instance, as the Bureau of Labor under Colonel Wright, the permanent Census Bureau under Dr. North, the Immigration Bureau under Mr. Sargent, the Corporations Bureau under Mr. Garfield, the Statistical Bureau under Mr. Austin, the Lighthouse Board, and a variety of other services. Mr. Cortelyou makes a good argument for the bringing together of these various bureaus into one new and appropriate building for the Department of Commerce and Labor. At present the department is organizing on sound and broad lines.

The President and the "Day's Work."

The quiet but efficient work that is going on in the branches of this department is indeed the thing most characteristic of the Roosevelt administration. The President is a man of such varied talents and activities, and his administration has already been so full of exceptional and diverting incidents, that it is quite too seldom remarked in the newspapers that the chief claim to distinction in the present régime at Washington is the high grade of regular, ordinary administrative work that characterizes the various departments almost without exception. For, after all, the President's greatest talent is not for speech-making, or for meeting exceptional emergencies like the anthracite coal strike or the Panama revolution, but, rather, it is for the vast detail of high-class, every-day administrative work. So indomitable a capacity for work has probably never been known in any executive post in the United States as Mr. Roosevelt shows from morning until night every day, and without apparent fatigue or impairment of energy.

Mr. Payne and His Abused Department.

In view of the criticisms so freely passed upon Mr. Payne's administration of the postal department, it is merely to be stated here that Mr. Payne, far beyond any of his predecessors in half a century, has eliminated politics from the scores of thousands of appointments to fourth-class postmasterships, and that he has given to the voluminous work of his office an amount of conscientious attention to details that not one business man in a hundred could have equaled. The attempt, furthermore, of certain newspapers to refuse to Mr. Payne any credit whatsoever for the sweeping investigation that has been conducted under Mr. Bristow, the Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General, is so manifestly unfair that merely to mention it would seem to be giving it undue dignity. It is true that Mr. Payne at first discredited the so-called Tulloch charges; but he has most loyally and at every stage supported the President and his own subordinate, Mr. Bristow, together with the special counsel, Messrs. Bonaparte and Conrad, in the thoroughgoing investigation they have made of certain abuses now brought to light in the famous Bristow report.

The Bristow Report.

Concerning the author of that report, by the way, we have pleasure in presenting to our readers elsewhere in this issue a very interesting sketch of the honest, fearless, and faithful public servant who has carried on so remarkable a piece of investigation. Mr. Payne was remarking, the

other day, that in the famous Star Route frauds nobody was finally convicted and punished; whereas, among these recent cases many indictments have been found, and it is morally certain that a considerable number of convictions will eventually have been secured. One of the crying needs developed by this investigation is that of a change in the Statute of Limitations. Criminal malfeasance in office may well be covered up so carefully as not to be exposed for more than three years after it occurs. The period named in the statute should be extended to at least five years, and this is recommended to Congress by the administration.

The Interior Department.

The feature of the work of the Interior Department that has of late had most attention in the newspapers is the attempt to eliminate fraud from the administration of the public land laws. Unquestionably these laws have been evaded and defied to a fearful extent for a great many years past. But never has there been such vigor shown in their proper enforcement, and in the detection and punishment of their violations, as at the present time. For all this Secretary Hitchcock and the administration are entitled to much credit. Meanwhile the great Pension Department is being admirably managed under Commissioner Ware. At the close of the fiscal year we had 996,545 pensioners on the national rolls, a net loss of 2,901 from the previous year. Mr. Hitchcock's report contains many interesting details on the manner in which the new irrigation work of the Government is beginning. The report of the Indian Bureau is also full of valuable information. One gets a clear impression that the work of this Bureau is now going on with exceptional intelligence and sincerity. It is reported, regarding the Indian Territory and the work of the Dawes Commission in settling up the land situation, that everything will probably have been completed by the close of the present year 1904, so that affairs will be ripe in the Indian Territory for the establishment of a regular territorial form of government or else for admission to statehood. The views of the administration, as of all disinterested and well-informed people, are to the effect that the Indian Territory should be united to Oklahoma, and that the result would be a splendid and creditable addition to our sisterhood of States, to be made as early as possible in the year 1905. One of the most important branches of the work of the Interior Department is that of the Patent Office, which last year granted nearly 30,000 patents, besides receiving applications for about 50,000. With the steady growth of this great country of

ours, the work of such bureaus as that of the Patent Office grows constantly more extensive and elaborate. In spite of some faults and shortcomings, Uncle Sam's average performance of this vast public business of his is so efficient as to be praiseworthy in a high degree.

The Attorney-General's Busy Year. The Department of Justice has had an especially busy year, and Attorney-General Knox's report is accordingly an important one. The subject of naturalization frauds is treated with great thoroughness. It is recommended that the half a million dollars appropriated last year for special counsel, to aid in the prosecution of cases under the trust and interstate commerce laws, should be continued for the enforcement of other laws, especially those relating to frauds in relation to the public lands, the postal service, and naturalization. Mr. Knox has brought commanding ability to his work as Attorney-General, and this was brilliantly illustrated last month, when the great principles under contention in the Northern Securities cases were finally argued before the Supreme Court at Washington,—Mr. Knox making the chief argument for the Government, and Mr. John G. Johnston, the distinguished corporation lawyer of Philadelphia, making the chief argument on behalf of the corporations concerned in the so-called "merger" of the Great Northern and Northern Pacific railroads. These arguments were regarded by lawyers as

From The North American, Philadelphia.

MR. JOHN G. JOHNSTON, OF PHILADELPHIA.

(Who argued for the Northern Securities Company last month.)

among the most able as well as vitally important that have been presented to an American court in recent years. Vast issues await the decision of the Supreme Court, which will probably not be rendered for a number of weeks.

In Mr. Wilson's Great Field. The Department of Agriculture, as carried on by Secretary Wilson, has long since ceased to be either a matter for jibes or for disparagement. It has grown from year to year until it has fairly built itself into the life and work of the greatest by far of all our national interests, that of the cultivation of the soil. The department has become so well organized that it can lend itself not only to steady promotion and progress in all the different branches of farming, animal industry, forestry, and the like, but it can also face emergencies, such, for example, as the boll-weevil invasion of the cotton-growing district, which is causing such great apprehension in the Southwest. Secretary Wilson, who has done so much to promote the beet-sugar industry in this country, estimates the present crop at 260,000 tons, which is about ten times the size of the crop as recently as 1896. The work of our Agricultural Department would be a source of great satisfaction and pride to any government in the world.

HON. PHILANDER C. KNOX.
(Attorney-General of the United States.)

Our Comfortable Finances. In his annual report as Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. Shaw lays great stress upon the continued commercial prosperity of the country, in spite of the shrinkage in the market value of the securities of the great corporations. He discusses the currency question with some practical and useful recommendations. The surplus revenue of the Government for the last fiscal year was a little more than \$54,000,000. With the changed revenue laws now in force, it is not expected that there will be much surplus for the current fiscal year, half of which has now expired. Our foreign commerce for the last fiscal year was the largest in the history of the country. No other country finds its financial situation so comfortable as that disclosed by our national exchequer. Nevertheless, with so many temptations to lavish disbursement, it always behooves Congress to watch its spending of the public money with the utmost care.

Ardor for the Navy. The President congratulated Congress upon the steady progress in building up the American navy, and highly praised the work of the officers and enlisted men, and called upon the legislative branch to keep steadily on with the provision of additional ships. He particularly recommended a naval general staff on lines similar to those of the general staff lately created for the army. The annual report of Secretary Moody is a document full of important suggestions, and it clearly places the present Secretary in the rank of the remarkably efficient men who have served in a like capacity during several recent administrations. Mr. Moody is developing a great naval station at Guantanamo, on the southern coast of Cuba, which will be headquarters for our new Caribbean squadron. This is interesting in view of our acquired responsibilities at Panama.

Mr. Root's Final Report. Mr. Root's annual report as Secretary of War is his last, inasmuch as he is going to retire from the office at the end of the present month. He has accomplished many remarkable tasks since he took the portfolio of the War Department. We have secured from the pen of Mr. Walter Wellman an estimate of the nature and value of Mr. Root's services as an administrative officer of the United States, which we are glad to print elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW. Since most of the larger tasks set for himself by Mr. Root have already been accomplished, it is not necessary now to enter in detail upon the various excellent suggestions made in this last report, and we may pass directly to the consideration of an

army topic which brought both Mr. Root and the President very conspicuously into the discussions of the press last month.

The Controversy about General Wood. That topic was the promotion of Gen. Leonard Wood to be a major-general in the regular army. This promotion had occurred some months ago during the recess of Congress, and had gone into effect, along with several other promotions to this highest rank, and several hundred promotions in lower ranks, consequent upon the advancement of General Wood. This officer was a surgeon in the army, and was stationed at Washington at the time of the outbreak of the Spanish-American War. He had formerly been in the Southwest, and had taken part in an Apache campaign. His personal qualities were such that it was thought he would make a good volunteer officer, and he was appointed by his friend, President McKinley, colonel of the First Volunteer Cavalry, known as the "Rough Riders," with Theodore Roosevelt as lieutenant-colonel. Soon afterward, Colonel Wood was advanced to be a brigadier-general of volunteers. Later, by President McKinley, he was appointed a major-general of volunteers, and after the war, also by President McKinley, a brigadier-general in the regular army. On five several occasions, indeed, did the United States Senate confirm Leonard Wood on appointment of President McKinley, as a general in the United States army,—twice as brigadier of volunteers, twice as major-general of volunteers, and once as brigadier in the regular establishment. He actually served, moreover, as a major-general for periods aggregating three years. His recent promotion by President Roosevelt to be a major-general was simply a matter of advancing him in the line of seniority;—in other words, there were vacancies at the top, and the whole line moved up, Wood not being jerked out, but being allowed to keep his place. There was entire readiness in the Senate to confirm all the other military appointments of the recess, except that of General Wood, which, on account of criticisms, was held in the room of the Committee on Military Affairs, where a long investigation was conducted last month, with many witnesses.

The President and General Wood. The investigation was behind closed doors, but reports were constantly given out, and they were used in a most mysterious and malignant manner, not merely to disparage General Wood, but to reflect upon President Roosevelt, who was accused of having been the author of Wood's military advancement, step by step, through reasons of per-

sonal favoritism. Every word of this, so far as it related to the President, was absolutely false. All of the significant promotions of General Wood had been by President McKinley, at the instance of his Secretary of War, and had not been influenced in the slightest degree by Mr. Roosevelt, excepting the last one. This recess appointment was, of course, at the instance of the War Department, though entirely concurred in by the President. Mr. Root, if there were any need, would readily show that President Roosevelt has never evinced the slightest disposition to advance General Wood to the disadvantage or prejudice of any other officer of the army. If there is one personal quality more than another for which Theodore Roosevelt is well known among all his friends, it is his freedom from private bias, either of friendship or of enmity, in the performance of his public duties. It is so instinctively repugnant to his whole theory and method to make use of the public service for the benefit of persons related to him by any sort of ties, that he would usually be found leaning in the other direction. It would, indeed, be a public scandal if President Roosevelt had pushed Dr. Leonard Wood from the post of an assistant-surgeon to the rank of major-general in the regular army, on the ground of some supposed personal intimacy. But every assertion of this kind has not even one single grain of truth about it, from beginning to end.

*Why Senator
Hanna Fights
General Wood.*

The most powerful opponent of the confirmation of General Wood has been Senator Hanna, of Ohio. His reasons have been entirely plain to those who are acquainted with recent Ohio political history. Mr. Hanna was elected to the Senate in the Ohio Legislature by a close, protracted, and desperate fight, which required the turning of some doubtful votes and the exercise of a kind of political method that all good citizens are hoping may be avoided in the near future by the direct election of Senators at the polls. The lieutenant who served Mr. Hanna most valuably in this political work, without which he could never have had his seat in the Senate, is understood to have been Mr. Rathbone, who was in due time rewarded by being given a highly important and discretionary position in the postal service of Cuba. Unfortunately, Mr. Rathbone promptly began to indulge in practices which were pronounced to be criminal, with the well-known consequence of his arraignment, release on very heavy bail, and subsequent trial. Mr. Rathbone chose to attribute what he called this "persecution" to General Wood, then governor of Cuba. Mr. Root, however, threw light upon this sub-

ject last month by going before the Military Committee and taking upon himself all responsibility for every step in the prosecution of Rathbone, showing that General Wood was merely acting under the direction of the War Department at Washington. But Rathbone has been in position to command Hanna's support in his vindictive fight against Wood. The fact is, of course, that nearly everything for which General Wood has been blamed in his career as governor of Cuba turns out to have been done by the masterful and incorruptible Secretary of War, who was all the time in reality the director of Cuban affairs. Mr. Hanna's political method is precisely the opposite of President Roosevelt's or Secretary Root's,—Mr. Hanna having come into politics by a wholly different road. Mr. Roosevelt's and Mr. Root's methods are always impersonal; Mr. Hanna's are always personal. The President and Secretary have never cared for General Wood as a favorite, but have only cared for the public business of the country and the army. Mr. Hanna fights for his friends, and expects his friends to fight for him. He has been indebted to Rathbone and Heath, and stands by them in their disgrace. It does not follow from all this that General Wood's appointment was a wise one, and it is perfectly right that the Senate should investigate it to the utmost. Certain things have been charged against General Wood as a self-seeking and ambitious man, which it would seem as if he must insist upon having referred to a military court of honor. The whole point of our discussion here is that neither the President nor the Secretary has been in the slightest measure influenced by personal motives in the promotion of Leonard Wood or any other high officers in the army. Wood, when he left Cuba, wanted to go to the Moro country. Root thought not well of it, and refused to send him. Three months afterward, Root changed his mind and decided to have him go. Both decisions were based upon purely public considerations. From first to last, the President has never so much as lifted his little finger in General Wood's interest.

*Republican
Politics.*

These aspersions regarding the President were particularly widespread at just the time, last month, when the Republican National Committee met at Washington to fix the time and place of the next national convention. The political coteries were almost bursting with mystery and whispered gossip. It was rumored that a great *coup* was in store, and that the committee would strongly disclose its dislike of President Roosevelt and its preference for Senator Hanna as the next

Republican candidate. The *coup* did not come off, however. It is perfectly well known that a vast propaganda had been secretly waged for Mr. Hanna, and that the conspiracy against Mr. Roosevelt (started in Wall Street and carried out by the well-known politicians who are subject to Wall Street influence) was feeling its way throughout the country. The trouble, however, with this movement can be stated in one brief sentence. It failed to discover the slightest evidence in any Republican State of genuine sentiment for any other Presidential candidate than Mr. Roosevelt himself.

*The
Passing of
the "Hanna
Boom."*

Mr. Hanna, as chairman of the Republican National Committee, has appointed many of the members of that committee from different States, and has dominated an immense amount of political machinery. It is easy to understand, therefore, that the Hanna movement could command the class of politicians particularly well represented by Mr. Kerens, of St. Louis, and Senator Scott, of West Virginia,—and by Mr. Perry Heath, now of Utah, whom Mr. Hanna still keeps as secretary of the National Committee in spite of the *Bristow* report, and whom Mr. Hanna, curiously enough, also appointed last month to represent Minnesota at the National Committee meeting in the absence of the member of that State, although there were at Washington at the time at least twenty-five eminent Minnesota Republicans. But although the Hanna movement readily commands such political support, it does not interest the Republican voters, who cannot fail to see that some at least of the politicians have been playing a very treacherous game. The fact is, that the Republican party,—when in almost every State last year it committed itself to the renomination of President Roosevelt,—meant exactly what it said, and it has no intention whatever of reconsidering that subject. The President is no scheming politician, has no machine at his bidding, and goes straight forward from day to day doing the public business at the executive offices. His strength lies in the confidence he has inspired in the plain people of this country. The more experienced and astute organization leaders like Senator Platt, of New York, and Senator Quay, of Pennsylvania, see all this very clearly, and do not give a moment's thought to the idea that any other name is to be presented to the next convention, which, it is now decided, will meet at Chicago on June 21. In New York, by the way, the active leadership of the Republican organization has passed by agreement from Senator Platt to Governor Odell. A national campaign chairman has not yet been

decided upon. Conditions have wholly changed since Mr. Hanna managed the Republican campaigns of 1896 and 1900. The new times call for new methods. Both of those campaigns were run from Wall Street.

*Mr. Cleveland
Not to Run.*

The business of candidate-making in the Democratic party proceeded with great assiduity in the closing weeks of the year. Ex-President Cleveland, whose candidacy had been urged with such eloquence and so many expressions of favor, declared emphatically, on November 25, in a note written to Mr. St. Clair McKelway, editor of the *Brooklyn Eagle*, that he would not under any circumstances be a candidate or accept a nomination. The note has historical importance, and we give it in full:

PRINCETON, November 25, 1903.

MY DEAR MR. MCKELWAY,—I have waited for a long time to say something which I think should be said to you before others.

You can never know how grateful I am for the manifestation of kindly feeling toward me, on the part of

MR. WILLIAM R. HEARST.

(An active Democratic candidate for Presidential honors.)

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HON. GROVER CLEVELAND—(from a new photograph).

my countrymen, which your initiative has brought out. Your advocacy in the *Eagle* of my nomination for the Presidency came to me as a great surprise; and it has been seconded in such manner by Democratic sentiment that conflicting thoughts of gratitude and duty have caused me to hesitate as to the time and manner of a declaration on my part concerning the subject,—if such a declaration should seem necessary or proper.

In the midst of it all, and in full view of every consideration presented, I have not for a moment been able, nor am I now able, to open my mind to the thought that in any circumstances, or upon any consideration, I should ever again become the nominee of my party for the Presidency. My determination not to do so is unalterable and conclusive.

This you, at least, ought to know from me; and I should be glad if the *Eagle* were made the medium of its conveyance to the public

Very sincerely yours,

GROVER CLEVELAND.

ST. CLAIR MCKELWAY, LL.D., Brooklyn, N. Y.

*The
Democratic
Candidates.*

Mr. McKelway, who had been for months advocating the nomination of Mr. Cleveland, at once declared his preference for Judge Alton B. Parker, president of the Court of Appeals of the State of New York. Mr. Parker's candidacy is one of acknowledged dignity and fitness, and it seems to have been favorably received in the South, and also among Western Democrats. The most conspicuous candidate, however, in the States that furnish the Democratic electoral votes,—those of the solid South,—is Senator Arthur P. Gorman, of Maryland. In well-advised political circles, especially at Washington, it was the privately expressed opinion last month that Mr. Gorman would probably obtain the Democratic nomination. The public at large seems not to be quite aware of the extent to which the movement for

HON. ALTON B. PARKER, OF NEW YORK.

(A leading candidate for the Democratic nomination.)

the nomination of Mr. William R. Hearst has been pushed. Mr. Hearst, who is the proprietor of the morning *American*, formerly the *Journal*, and the *Evening Journal*, of New York, and also of the *Chicago American* and the *San Francisco Examiner*, is a member of the present Congress from a New York district, and his Presidential boom has taken the form of Hearst clubs in a number of States. The movement has appealed chiefly to the ranks of organized labor. It is now probable that a number of names will go before the Democratic convention, and the prize will very possibly be carried off by a compromise candidate. Some people suppose this may prove to be the Hon. David B. Hill, of New York, while others think it likely that

Judge Gray, formerly Senator from Delaware, a public man of the highest rank, will carry off the honors. Mr. William J. Bryan might fairly be said to have been the man of the month in European circles through December, so much was he fêted and talked about. He has made a very good impression abroad, and has been following with particular interest the tariff discussion in England. Literally hundreds of good-natured American cartoons have appeared on Mr. Bryan's foreign experiences. He will come back with all the stronger hold upon his friends, and will certainly have a good deal to say in the making of Democratic candidates and platforms this year. All of the prominent candidates are said to have supported the Bryan ticket in 1900.

Post-Office Committee. Mr. Payne, of New York, remains at the head of the Committee on Ways and Means; Mr. Jenkins heads the Judiciary; Mr. Hitt keeps his old place on Foreign Affairs; Mr. Fowler remains at the head of the Banking and Currency Committee, and Mr. Hepburn at that of Interstate and Foreign Commerce; Mr. Burton will preside over Rivers and Harbors; Mr. Grosvenor is chairman of Merchant Marine and Fisheries; Mr. Wadsworth, of Agriculture; Mr. Hull, of Military Affairs, and Mr. Foss, of Naval Affairs; Mr. Lacey, of Public Lands; Mr. Sherman, of Indian Affairs; Mr. Cooper, of Insular Affairs; Mr. Hamilton, of Territories; Mr. Dick, of Militia; Mr. Sulloway, of Invalid Pensions; Mr. Loudenslager, of Pensions; Mr. Gardner, of Labor; Mr. Gillet, of Public Buildings and Grounds; Mr. Babcock, of District of Columbia; Mr. Mondell, of Irrigation; Mr. Howell, of Immigration; Mr. Crumpacker, of Census; Mr. McCleary, of Library; Mr. Landis, of Printing; and Mr. Tawney, of Industrial Arts and Expositions. Some of these men have served many terms in Congress, and all of them several. The names of Senators are more frequently seen in the newspapers, but these experienced leaders of the dominant party in the House of Representatives are a great factor in the Government of the United States, and the people of this country ought to be familiar with their names and, in so far as possible, ought to have some notion of their respective characters and personalities. They form a strong and capable body of lieutenants for the energetic new Speaker.

Photo by Chedinst.

HON. ARTHUR PUE GORMAN.

(Leading Presidential candidate in the South.)

Speaker Cannon, in arranging the committees of the new Congress, made few changes in the important chairmanships. The most conspicuous are the selection of Mr. Heinenway, of Indiana, to fill Mr. Cannon's own former place at the head of the Appropriations Committee, and Mr. Overstreet, of Indiana, to the chairmanship of the

*European
Notes.*

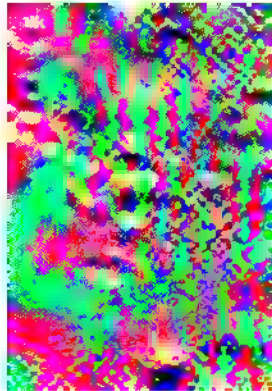
In the background of the European news, last month, was the little-expressed but deeply-felt apprehension on account of the ill health of the German Emperor. It was constantly and emphatically denied that the throat operation to which he had been subjected was due to anything of a cancerous nature, nevertheless, his father and mother both died from such maladies. It was the persistent belief, in spite of denials, that the Emperor's case might be of a like character. But certainly the Emperor was hunting in Hanover last month, and he made public appearances and speeches quite incompatible with the condition of a man rapidly dying from cancer of the throat. So great a figure in the world's affairs is the Emperor that it is gratifying to be assured that the ill tidings about his health had scant foundation. A subject that has absorbed great attention in Germany lately has been that of the brutality of army officers in the treatment of private soldiers, and there have been some salu-

HON. JOHN J. JENKINS,
OF WISCONSIN.
Judiciary.

HON. ROBERT R. HITT,
OF ILLINOIS.
Foreign Affairs.

HON. JAMES A. HEMENWAY,
OF INDIANA.
Appropriations.

HON. SERENO E. PAYNE,
OF NEW YORK.
Ways and Means.



HON. CHARLES F. FOWLER,
OF NEW JERSEY.
Banking and Currency.

HON. GEORGE E. FOSB,
OF ILLINOIS.
Naval Affairs.

HON. JOHN A. T. NULL,
OF IOWA.
Military Affairs.

HON. CHARLES E. GROSVENOR,
OF OHIO.
Merchant Marine and
Fisheries.

HON. JOHN J. GARDNER,
OF NEW JERSEY.
Labor.

HON. JESSE OVERSTREET,
OF INDIANA.
Post-Offices and Post-Roads.

HON. THEODORE E. BURTON,
OF OHIO.
Rivers and Harbors.

HON. WILLIAM P. HEPBURN,
OF IOWA.
Interstate and Foreign
Commerce.

CHAIRMEN OF TWELVE IMPORTANT COMMITTEES IN THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

tary punishments of offenders. In France, there has been much interest in two matters in which M. Philippe Bunau-Varilla has borne an important part. One of these is the creation of a new Panama republic, and the other is the re-appointment of Dreyfus to a military command. It was due to a private examination of a photograph of the famous *bordereau* in comparison with a letter he had in his possession from Dreyfus that led M. Bunau-Varilla to the conclusion that Dreyfus was innocent, whereupon the *bordereau* saw the light of publicity through *Le Matin*, the Paris newspaper controlled by M. Bunau-Varilla's brother, and a long and painful but irresistible campaign for truth and justice followed. The English, last month, were more than ever the victims of what they now call by common consent "fiscalitis,"—that is to say, they were all devoting themselves to the discussion of Mr. Chamberlain's proposed tariff policy. As for the Birmingham statesman himself, his tone has grown ever more assured and confident, and he has been winning great support. He has undertaken to organize on his own account a great commission, made up of prominent men connected with different lines of British industry and commerce, to make report upon England's trade situation and methods for its improvement.

The breach in the Irish party, and the fight over tariff theories will make British politics lively for a year to come.

*Democratic
Victory in
Boston.*

In the Boston municipal contest, the Democratic candidate, Mayor Collins, was reelected, on December 15, by the greatest majority ever given for any mayor in the history of Boston. The whole situation took

on a political cast, and the Democrats swept the Board of Aldermen, the school board, and other offices. It is not often that the party system produces so good a mayor as Mr. Collins. Boston needs thorough and intelligent work on the part of a non-partisan citizens' body, and this it is going to have in the future under the Good Government Association led by Mr. Billings. In a

MR. EDMUND BILLINGS.
(Secretary Good Government
Association of Boston.)

landslide like this, the work of such a league seems to count for little, but in the long run such a movement can and must win the balance of power. Boston and Philadelphia must get in line with New York and Chicago.

New York's Tammany administration begins January 1. The great civic event of last month was the opening of a second bridge connecting Manhattan Island with Brooklyn, a structure 50 per cent. more capacious than the original Brooklyn Bridge, which has been in service for twenty years. The underground railway system of New York has made great progress in the past year, and will be operating its first trains, probably, in March or April. Electricity on the elevated roads has added more than 50 per cent. to their carrying capacity; but they are still overcrowded. The surface system will this year "electrify" a remaining forty miles of horse-car lines. Mayor McClellan's appointments were partly announced as we closed for the press, but it will suffice to comment next month upon the organization of the new city government. Even its enemies wish it well,—that is, those opposed to Tammany want the best results that can be had.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From November 21 to December 20, 1903.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

November 23.—The Senate discusses the Newlands resolution for the annexation of Cuba.

November 24.—In the Senate, the Isle of Pines treaty is sent back to the Committee on Foreign Relations.... In the House, Mr. Hill's (Rep., Conn.) bill for currency reform is presented.

December 1.—In the Senate, Mr. Morgan (Dem., Ala.) offers resolutions for an inquiry into isthmian canal matters.... The House debates the tariff.

December 5.—Speaker Cannon announces the House committees.

December 7.—The regular session of the Fifty-eighth Congress is begun; President Roosevelt's message is read in both branches.... The President sends to the Senate as recess appointments the nomination of Gen. Leonard Wood and others, which failed of confirmation at the extra session.

December 8.—The Senate debates the postal frauds.... The House adopts a resolution authorizing the Post-Office Committee to call for papers bearing on the postal investigation.

December 9.—In the Senate, Mr. Hoar (Rep., Mass.) offers a resolution calling upon the President for all the facts relating to the Panama revolution, the government, treaty, etc.... The House, in committee of the whole, considers the President's message.

December 10.—The House adopts a resolution instructing the Judiciary Committee to investigate charges against Judge Swayne, of Florida; the pension appropriation bill is introduced.

December 11.—President Roosevelt's Panama policy is debated in the House.

December 14.—The pension appropriation bill is under discussion in the House.

December 15.—The Cuban reciprocity bill is debated in the Senate.... The House goes into committee of the whole on the pension appropriation bill.

December 18.—The Senate passes the Cuban reciprocity bill by a vote of 57 to 18.

December 17.—In the Senate, Mr. Hoar (Rep., Mass.) and Mr. Gorman (Dem., Md.) attack and Mr. Foraker (Rep., O.) defends President Roosevelt's Panama policy.... The House passes the pension appropriation bill.

December 18.—The Senate, in executive session, ratifies the commercial treaty with China.... The House, by a vote of 100 to 100, adopts a resolution authorizing the Committee on Expenditures in the Post-Office Department to call for papers in the postal investigation.

December 19.—Both branches adjourn for the holiday recess.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

November 29.—An abstract of Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General Bristow's report on the frauds in the Post-Office Department is made public at Washington, together with a memorandum by President Roosevelt.

December 4.—Governor Peabody declares martial law at Cripple Creek, Col.

THE FRENCH DIRIGIBLE AIR-SHIP "LEBAUDY."

December 8.—In the election of a charter commission for Denver, Col., the Democrats win by a large majority.... Socialist mayors in the cities of Brockton and Haverhill, Mass., are defeated for reelection.

December 12.—The Republican National Committee decides to hold the next national convention at Chicago on June 21, 1904.

December 15.—The arguments before the United States Supreme Court in the Northern Securities case are concluded.... Mayor Patrick Collins (Dem.), of Boston, is reflected by a plurality of over 26,000.

December 16.—The report of Holmes Conrad and Charles J. Bonaparte, sustaining the Tulloch charges in the postal fraud cases, is made public at Washington.

December 19.—It is announced that Gen. John C. Black (Dem.) will succeed the late John R. Procter as United States Civil Service Commissioner.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

November 23.—The French ministry is sustained in its foreign policy by a large majority in the Chamber of Deputies.

November 24.—San Domingo is captured by the insurgent forces, Wos y Gil and his ministers taking refuge on a German warship.

December 1.—In a speech before the Italian Parliament, Signor Giolitti outlines important domestic reforms.

December 3.—The German Reichstag is opened by Chancellor von Bülow in the absence of the Emperor....The Spanish cabinet resigns.

December 4.—The French Chamber of Deputies passes the budget by an almost unanimous vote, and adjourns for ten days.

December 5.—A decree is issued by the Empress Dowager looking to the reorganization of the Chinese army; Yuan Shi Kai is appointed to the command of all the Chinese forces, naval and military.

December 8.—General Reyes is elected President of Colombia.

December 11.—After the refusal to reconsider its criticism of the ministry, the Japanese Diet is formally dissolved.

December 15.—By-elections in two London constituencies are won by the Conservatives....Premier Combes communicates to the French Council of Ministers the text of a bill forbidding all teaching by the religious orders and providing for the enlargement of the state system of public schools.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

November 23.—The German Emperor orders the recognition of the republic of Panama.

November 25.—It is announced that Turkey accepts in principle the Austro-Russian plan of reforms in Macedonia.

November 26.—The new *de facto* government of San Domingo is recognized by the United States.

December 2.—The Panama Canal treaty is ratified at Panama....Sir Henry Mortimer Durand, the new British ambassador to the United States, is received by President Roosevelt.

December 5.—The British consul in the Congo reports to his government that slavery and barbarism in most revolting forms exist in that country.

December 8.—W. R. Davis, United States consul at Alexandretta, Turkey, hauls down the flag of the consulate and leaves the city in consequence of having been assaulted and insulted by Turkish officials.

December 11.—Major Wood, of the Northwest Mounted Police, begins the moving of the Canadian outposts along the Alaskan boundary in conformity with the award of the arbitration commission.

December 12.—President Roosevelt appoints W. I. Buchanan United States minister to Panama.

December 17.—President Roosevelt signs the Cuban

reciprocity bill as passed by Congress and issues a proclamation putting the treaty into effect in ten days.

December 19.—The Turkish Government instructs the governor at Alexandretta to apologize to Consul Davis.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

November 23.—It is learned that an Argentine warship rescued the members of the Nordenskjöld Antarctic expedition, whose vessel, the *Antarctic*, was crushed in the ice on February 12 last.

November 26.—Sir William Ramsay, the chemist, announces the discovery that a gaseous emanation from radium is really helium....The flood in St. Petersburg drives 20,000 people into the streets.

November 30.—Ten per cent. of the population of Butler, Penn., are reported ill with typhoid fever.

December 1.—A receiver is appointed for Dr. John Alexander Dowie's Zion City (Ill.) properties.

December 2.—Ottawa

University, Ottawa, Canada, is destroyed by fire.

December 7.—Serious labor riots occur at Lyons, France.

December 8.—The Greek steamer *Pyloros* is sunk by collision with the *Assos* in the port of Ithaca, and fifty passengers are drowned....Professor Langley's air-ship is wrecked at its second trial on the Potomac River.

December 15.—The H. C. Frick Coke Company announces a wage cut of 17 per cent. in the Connellsville region.

December 19.—The new East River bridge is formally opened by Mayor Low. of New York City.

OBITUARY.

November 21.—Prince Dimitri Soltykoff, 73.

November 22.—Gen. George H. Stuart, prominent as a Confederate commander in the Civil War, 76....Rev. James M. Pullman, D.D., a well-known Universalist clergyman, 67....Dr. R. D. Murray, an eminent yellow-fever expert, 64....The Marquis de Gabriac, French diplomat, 73.

November 23.—James King Gracie, the New York philanthropist, 63....Sir John Blundell Maple, M.P., 57.

November 24.—Julian Walbridge Rix, a painter of Californian mountain scenery, 62....Ex-Representative Jonathan S. Willis, of Delaware, 74.

November 26.—William C. Wyman, a well-known Baltimore philanthropist, 79....John Dwight, the pioneer manufacturer of bicarbonate of soda in the United States, 84.

November 27.—Rev. William Charles Roberts, D.D.,

ARTHUR M. BEAUPRE.
(Consul-General at Bogotá
and secretary of the American
Legation in Colombia.)

59....Rev. John Lanahan, D.D., a noted Methodist minister of Baltimore, 88.

December 9.—Cardinal Herrero y Espinosa, Archbishop of Valencia, 81....Ex-President H. H. White, of Kentucky University, 82.

December 10.—Rear-Admiral Bancroft Gherardi, U.S.N., retired, 71....Baron Arthur de Rothschild.

December 12.—John R. Procter, of Kentucky, president of the United States Civil Service Commission, 60....Marcus Baker, cartographer of the United States Geological Survey, 54.

December 13.—Bishop Dennis M. Bradley, of the Roman Catholic diocese of New Hampshire, 57....Ex-United States Senator Alexander McDonald, of Arkansas, 73.

December 14.—George Walton Green, a prominent lawyer and political writer of New York City, 50.

December 15.—Principal Daniel C. Farr, of the Glens Falls (N. Y.) Academy, 55.

December 18.—Gen. Henry Kyd Douglas, the noted Confederate commander, author, and artist, 66....Gen.

THE WAGNER MONUMENT RECENTLY UNVEILED AT BERLIN.

president of Central University, Kentucky, 71....Mgr. D. E. Quigley, formerly vicar-general of the Roman Catholic diocese of Charleston, S. C., 68.

November 28.—Rev. Theodore Lorenzo Selp, D.D., president of Muhlenberg College, 61....Jules Levy, once famous as a cornetist, 65.

December 1.—Sir John Richard Robinson, the English journalist, 75....Ex-Burgomaester Joseph Mayer, of Oberammergau, famous as the impersonator of *Christus* in the Passion Play.

December 2.—Dr. Cyrus Edson, of New York, 46....Col. Henry H. Hadley, a prominent organizer of city missions....Joshua Ward, an old-time champion oarsman, 65.

December 3.—Bishop Abiel Leonard, of the Protestant Episcopal diocese of Utah and Nevada, 55.

December 4.—Ex-Congressman William M. Springer, of Illinois, 68.

December 5.—Representative Henry Burk, of the Third Pennsylvania District, 58....John Slaughter, the oldest Wyoming pioneer, 94.

December 7.—Aldred Sharpless, author of the "John Ploughshare" letters, 82.

December 8.—Herbert Spencer, the English philosopher, 83 (see page 67)....Rev. Henry Clay Trumbull, D.D., editor of the *Sunday-School Times*, 78 (see page 137)....Robert Grimes, the well-known bridge-builder,

THE LATE FREDERICK R. COUDERT.

Stephen Thomas, of Vermont, 94....Milton G. Shaw, a well-known lumberman of Maine, 53.

December 19.—Ex-Congressman R. J. C. Walker, of Philadelphia, 65.

December 20.—Frederic R. Coudert, the distinguished New York lawyer, 72.

SOME AMERICAN



MARK HANNA: "Come here, Bolivar."
From the *Herald* (Baltimore).

AN EASY MARK.—"Shoo, fly, don't bother me!"
From the *Press* (New York).

From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



RIGHT OF WAY.

UNCLE SAM: "Never mind waiting for orders, Teddy. You have a clear track."—From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).

THE RETURN BALL.

"Keep throwing it, Mark!"
From the *World* (New York).



THOSE LITTLE FELLOWS WANT TO LOOK OUT WHEN I TOSS THE BALL.—From the Herald (New York).

AT MR. CANUCK'S DOOR.

UNCLE SAM: "Mighty sing'ler, but when he was dead sot on a dicker I wa'n't to hum. Now when I'm kinder feelin that way,—why, he ain't to hum."

From the World (Toronto, Canada).

SO GENEROUS.

COLOMBIA: "There's my rabbit, Uncle. You can have him,—won't cost you a cent."

From the Journal (Minneapolis).

MR. WILLIAM J. BRYAN AT HOME AND ABROAD.
From the Ohio State Journal (Columbus).

ONLY ONE IN SIGHT.
The Democratic party looking for a possible Presidential
sphinx.—*From the Tribune (Minneapolis).*

GROVER: "Take, O take, those lips away!"
From the Ohio State Journal (Columbus).

GROVER: "There, my good man—do go away. Your music
is very sweet, but, you see, I have retired."
From the Journal (Minneapolis).

CHICK KOREA: "If this fight ever happens, I'll get the worst of it."
From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).

4



UNCLE SAM: "It is to laugh!"
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).

PANAMA TO COLOMBIA: "Bring on your war dogs!"
From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland).

HE LAUGHS BEST WHO LAUGHS LAST.

THE DEMOCRATIC DONEY: "Ha! ha! the cat is out of the bag."

THE STRENUOUS REPUBLICAN BOY: "Yes, but it will soon be a dead cat."—From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

A GOOD CATCH.

From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland.)

ELIHU ROOT: A CHARACTER SKETCH.

BY WALTER WELLMAN.

ORDINARILY the President of the United States is not to be interviewed. But there are exceptions to all rules. When I asked President Roosevelt for an expression of his opinion of the character and public services of Elihu Root, who within a few weeks is to retire from the Secretaryship of War, the President replied: "I am very glad to do that. In John Hay I have a great Secretary of State. In Philander Knox I have a great Attorney-General. In other cabinet posts I have great men. Elihu Root could take any one of those places and fill it as well as the man who is now there. And in addition, he is what probably none of these other gentlemen could be,—a great Secretary of War.

"Elihu Root is the ablest man I have known in our governmental service. I will go further. He is the greatest man that has appeared in the public life of any country, in any position, on either side of the ocean, in my time."

This is praise, indeed. But in departing for a moment from the conventionalities for the purpose of paying a farewell tribute to this good and faithful public servant, President Roosevelt only echoes the thought which is in the mind of every man in Washington who has carefully watched the career of the retiring statesman. After such a tribute, from such a source, any other general summing-up of Mr. Root's services, character, and rightful place would be superfluous. There remains for me only the pleasant task of telling something of the man himself, his work, his methods, his achievements. It must be a little story of great deeds,—a history of big work well worth a volume, but perforce compressed within a few pages. In the writing of it only one difficulty appears: the pen will be constantly tempted to words and phrases of praise which in the aggregate might seem fulsome. And fulsomeness of Elihu Root would be ill fitting,—ribbons in the lion's mane. If a character-sketch of a man should be governed by the mood of the man himself, this one would have to be the barest statement of fact, direct, simple, unadorned,—a mere photograph. Literally, perhaps, it would not be written at all. But the subject is so interesting, in many ways so fascinating to the student and the artist, that he would indeed be a stoic who could use upon it the camera while the portrait-painter's brush was permitted to lie idle.

PRESIDENT MCKINLEY'S CHOICE.

To my mind there is something almost poetic about the rise of this man. It is one of the epics which appear here and there in the sagas of our American life. Five years ago, his name was not known to five thousand people outside the city of New York. To-day, his fame extends throughout the world. When President McKinley chose him for Secretary of War at a crisis in the affairs of his administration, it was commonly said that for once that unparalleled judge of men had erred. Who was this man Root? Who had ever heard of him before? What could a plain New York lawyer do in the War Department? What had Blackstone to do with Mars? Why, Mr. Root was not only not a military man, but he was not even a politician. He had done little in public life or in party activities. In the West, particularly, there was astonishment. But the sequel shows that McKinley was right, as usual, in his estimate of men. It is an odd circumstance that he had but the slightest personal acquaintance with Mr. Root before he chose him for his war minister. Slight as this acquaintance was, it was enough. Mr. McKinley was, without doubt, the quickest and surest judge of men we have had in the White House in generations.

THE WAR DEPARTMENT AS MR. ROOT FOUND IT.

Mr. Root came to the War Department at a moment when it was under a popular ban. The country believed that the executive and supply organizations of the army were in a deplorable condition. There was some basis for this prevalent belief. The condition was not as bad as many thought it; but it was bad enough. The great department had a thick and noisome growth of barnacles all over its hulk. It was tradition-ridden. Such system as existed was clumsy and inefficient. The men who had grown up under it,—each head of bureau a petty tyrant, and many of the subordinates time-marking drones,—little dreamed that this New York lawyer was to be the instrument of such a cleaning-out as had never before been witnessed in government stables. With him they anticipated an easy time. Each set out to capture him, to "make himself solid," to perpetuate his reign and his

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HON. ELIHU ROOT

semi-feudal independence within his petty administrative principality.

They were not long in discovering that they had been dreaming; that they had not merely a new man, but a new sort of man to reckon with. The first thing Mr. Root did was to concentrate his mind upon the task of finding out what sort of a machine it was he had to run. Concentration of mind with him means the application of a

potential, almost an invincible force. If you have seen a compressed air-driven drill working its way slowly, noiselessly, surely, through the adamant rock, you may realize how this mind of Mr. Root operates upon the problems which confront it. The harder the rock, the greater the working pressure, the sharper the drill.

Within a few weeks, he knew what was the matter with the War Department and the or-

ganization of the army. It was a case of every man for himself and the devil playing pranks with them all. The spirit which dominated was that in which each man was trying to lift himself up by pulling some one else down. Not a few of the bureau chiefs had actually done good work during the Spanish War. The trouble was that they did not work together. And there was no power that could compel them to work together. Men who were disposed to sane and cordial coöperation were forced to abandon all thought of it and look to the saving of their bacon. The more energetic chiefs, who set the pace for all others, were managing their offices much as in the old days virile editors managed their newspapers,—winning power and exciting fear by hitting every head they could reach, by knocking right and left and walking triumphantly over the bodies of their fallen victims. In the War Department, every man was constantly looking over his shoulder in fear that some one was stealing upon him unawares with intent to crack him over the head.

A NEW SPIRIT INFUSED AMONG THE BUREAU CHIEFS.

This was the War Department as Mr. Root found it. He grappled with the thing. He set out upon theory that all men are naturally good if only they have a chance and an inducement. He appealed to their better instincts. He took an interest in the work of each chief. He made every man feel that at the head of all was one who would not only be just and protect, but who understood. When he had crept close to the men and their work and their problems, he began bringing men together. Bitter rivals were surprised to find themselves confronting one another at the desk of the secretary. They were more surprised when they perceived how well he knew them and their needs, how easy it seemed to coöperate with other bureaus, how far from being a bad fellow was the odious rival of former times when one got better acquainted with him. There were some who were not amenable to these influences, who could not be made over by any process less revolutionary than cremation. They were gotten rid of. All who remained were encouraged and stimulated. Flagging interest began to revive. Animosities were buried or minimized. The pace of work quickened. Initiative, the sure outcome of real interest and just appreciation higher up, blossomed amazingly where before only dry rot had festered. In spirit the great department was born again.

One of the peculiar qualities of Mr. Root's mind is its impersonality. A mathematician and the son of a mathematician, men to him are

quantities. They stand before his mental vision, not so much as human entities, as the symbols of results, of work, of progress, of things. Those who were in the confidence of Mr. Root never heard him break forth in word of angry denunciation or bitter criticism. When he discussed General Miles at all it was with words of praise for his fine record as a soldier in the old days, admiration for his energy and adroitness, just appreciation of his character. The Secretary believed that for self-protection, for the good of the service, there was nothing to do but to take power out of Miles' hands. This Mr. Root did calmly, quickly, resolutely, and as he does all things, without fuss, reproaches, lamentations, or bickerings.

THE CREATION OF A GENERAL STAFF.

Not only has the War Department itself been regenerated, but the army has been provided with an organization which promises speedily to make it the peer of any fighting corps of its size in the world. It is an old story now how Elihu Root resolved to place the American army on a sound basis; how he at first hoped to introduce the system of coöperation through the war college; how he at length became satisfied that this plan, while good as far as it went, did not go half far enough; how he set Colonel (now Brigadier-General) Carter at work as a student evolving from all military experience a working plan, and how it was finally carried through Congress and put into operation,—“the greatest step forward made in the American army,” according to an eminent authority, “in one hundred years.” These facts are already known. But it is not known that when Secretary Root started on the general staff idea he was virtually alone in its advocacy among the influential men of the army. Partly through the influence of General Miles he was at first defeated. Congress put him off with a discouragement which would have daunted most men. Mr. Root only gripped the harder to his idea, and began to look about for the means of attaining success.

He warned up General Corbin; and the adjutant-general, at first opposed to the innovation, became at length a most powerful advocate of it, even at the risk of loss of his own power and prestige. Corbin was ever the man who wanted to stand with the crowd, and all go up or down together. He helped others and made others help him. If he was as selfish as he was accused of being, it is nevertheless true that he secured results. He did the work it was to the best interests of the Government and the army he should do. Mr. Root himself has praised Corbin as one of the most intensely loyal and

powerfully energetic men he ever knew. Then General Schofield, at Mr. Root's request, appeared before the Senate committee to talk for the general staff law, Chaffee and others added their quota, the Secretary himself appeared and made what members of the committee characterized as one of the most brilliant and effective arguments they had ever heard,—and at last, through persistency, through a campaign of education, through zeal intelligently and unerringly directed, the battle was won. The American army was placed upon a basis rational, effective, scientific. In this work alone, Mr. Root has left behind him a monument which will stand through the centuries, to say nothing of his innumerable other services to the army and to the Government from the standpoint of pure administration.

ELIHU ROOT.

(From a photograph taken about the time of his graduation from Hamilton College, in 1864.)

A CONSTRUCTIVE STATESMAN.

As many people know, and as President Roosevelt has intimated, Mr. Root is far more than an executive of the army,—he is a statesman of the first rank. He may fairly be said to be a statesman who makes states, who builds nations, and who writes the constitutions and the organic laws of peoples. This Mr. Root has done; and properly to tell the story of his achievements it is necessary that I shall reveal secrets hitherto well kept by the limited number of persons in possession of them. It often happens in this world that great and modest men do work for which others, through the intrusion of circumstances, and through selfish scheming, get the credit. Not infrequently epoch-making measures go down in history bearing the names of men who are not their real authors. This has happened to Mr. Root. In fact, his two great achievements as a statesman, the two pieces of work which bear the finest impress of his intellectual powers, are not commonly known at all to be his.

MR. ROOT'S HAND IN CUBA.

Let the reader recall to mind the story of Cuba: Remember that after the expulsion of Spain a most delicate problem confronted the

United States. We were in Cuba. We were master of her destinies. All the responsibility rested upon us. Of course, there were divided counsels. One party said: "We shall never get out of Cuba; we should be idiots to give it up." Another declared that there was nothing for us to do but to leave Cuba at once and completely, as we had promised to do,—turn the island over to the people thereof the moment we got the last of the Spanish troops away. Most people will remember that it was the influence of William McKinley which kept the United States in Cuba long enough to restore complete order, to clean the cities, to organize a government, to train government servants, to set the fledgling nation fairly and safely on its feet. If Cuba has broken all records among Spanish-American nations for successful and effective administration, it was because the guiding and educating hand of the United States was maintained there long enough to make this happy outcome a possibility. It was due directly to Mr. Root that this work was carried on long enough, and thoroughly enough, to make sure that the result should not be in doubt. It was Mr. Root who did the work. It was he who organized and trained the government, who educated the civil servants, who molded and nurtured and created a nation symmetrical, balanced, smooth-working, nicely adjusted in all its parts, and with competent men in charge of all details of the machinery. From the purely creative and preparatory point of view the name of Mr. Root is indissolubly connected with the Cuban republic. But this is not all.

AUTHOR OF THE PLATT AMENDMENT.

The solution of the relations of the United States to the new nation,—a solution which not only assured that a Cuban republic should come into being, but that it should be preserved under the sheltering wing of the great American eagle,—a solution so statesmanlike, so obviously a work of the highest genius that it must long serve as a model,—was embodied in what is known as the Platt amendment. Well, Mr. Root was the author of the Platt amendment. He wrote it, almost *verbatim* as it stands to-day, in a letter of instructions to General Wood for that officer's guidance in dealing with the Cuban constitutional convention. It was afterward submitted to the Senate Committee on Cuba, of which that really great Senator, Mr. Platt of Connecticut, is chairman, and after slight modification, was placed upon the statutes by Congress, and ratified in the constitution of the new republic. Thus Mr. Root not only created, formed, molded, trained, nursed, shaped the

Cuban nation, but wrote with his own hand its *magna charta*.

COLONIAL ADMINISTRATOR AND DIPLOMATIST.

This was not the only example of nation-building and law-making given by this great American lawyer, temporarily at the head of what might be called the colonial department of our government,—a colonial department, be it remembered, wherein everything was new, precedent was lacking, the very machinery of administration had to be made, the men to run it must be trained, and the policy of running it at all had to be mapped out and put through in the face of opposition at home powerful and insistent. This is no place for the story of the restoration of order and the introduction of the blessings of peace and an unselfish administration in the Philippines. It is enough to say that the man who directed this mighty effort, who made the plans and saw to their execution, who met the problems and solved them, who fixed the principles and attended to countless details, carried a burden of almost crushing weight. This man was Mr. Root. While he was carrying the great eastern archipelago on one shoulder he was carrying Cuba on the other. In his hands he gripped the War Department, and with them he pushed his plans for army reorganization. So

many other tasks of importance fell to his lot it would be impossible to catalogue them in a rapid survey like this.

For instance, at one time, in 1900, when President McKinley was at Canton and Secretary Hay was ill in New Hampshire, Mr. Root was virtually the Government of the United States. Alone, single-handed, for several weeks he bore the responsibility of the measures for relief of the legations at Peking. While Europe was hesitating, Mr. Root sent Chaffee on the memorable march. For pride's sake the allies followed the American column. Thus was made a record of which every American is justly proud. Night and day Mr. Root sat virtually at the end of the cable, receiving and sending dispatches. It was a crisis in which a blunder might have the most serious consequences. No blunder was made at Washington. Some of the clearest, strongest, and most sagacious dispatches ever sent by our State Department to a foreign power were forwarded to China and the allies during this memorable episode. They were written by Mr. Root. Not even that prince of diplomats, John Hay, could have done better. I think President Roosevelt had this in mind when he uttered the words with which this sketch is begun.

FOUNDATION WORK IN THE PHILIPPINES.

At length there came the moment in due course when our commission in the Philippines was to be given a full set of instructions for their guidance. Their powers were to be defined; their duties prescribed; their policies framed; their methods outlined; their laws to be enacted; the principles and rules which were to govern them in working out their immense, delicate, and most complicated problem, were to be formulated. These instructions were prepared. They were signed by President McKinley. They were handed over to the commission. When they were made public, statesmen and jurists the world over saw in them a constitution and a code of laws almost unprecedented in history. Here was what eminent authorities have pronounced the most nearly perfect example of organic law, jurisprudence, guarding of rights, distribution of powers, administrative provisions, checks and balances, civilization ever beheld in a single document. It was a constitution, a code judicial, a system of laws ready-made, statutes administrative covering all the activities of a nation and meeting wants and solving problems innumerable, all rolled into one. It was a masterly summing-up of the governing experience of the self-governing peoples of the world, adapted to and specially arranged for effective work in a given

field. These famous "instructions" became the organic law of the Philippine archipelago. Under them the civic machinery for a nation of nine millions of people has been worked out. And when the American Congress in its great collective wisdom came to legislate for the Philippines, it simply enacted these "instructions" *in toto*. To this achievement the honored name of William McKinley was attached; and as William McKinley's work it stands in history to this day. Every word was written by Elihu Root.

A GREAT CABINET ADVISER.

Where there is a great work there is always a great man. Moreover, there is always a great worker. During his four and a half years in Washington, Mr. Root has performed prodigies of toil. While carrying the peculiar and expansive responsibilities of his own huge, world-embracing department, he was the eagerly sought adviser of two Presidents as to all vexatious and weighty problems which arose in the Government. For sagacity which was encyclopedic, and which rarely failed or slipped, he early acquired a reputation among his associates. Men themselves great did not hesitate to look up to one still greater. Of his strength he gave freely; the impress of his mind rests upon matters and measures with which he is not generally supposed ever to have had anything to do. As an example, it was Mr. Root who presented to President Roosevelt the plan which, after two failures, resulted in securing a settlement of the anthracite coal strike; and it was Mr. Root in person who went to New York and brought the operators into line and hastened the footsteps of J. Pierpont Morgan to the memorable conference at the White House.

METHODS OF WORK.

Mr. Root's capacity for work and power of concentration of mind are simply marvelous. For years he has been at his desk ten, twelve, often fifteen hours a day. Scores of subordinates present to him between morning and night hundreds of questions demanding his decision. It is by no means uncommon to see half a dozen staff chiefs assembled before the Secretary's desk, each with his little problem ready. Mr. Root takes them as they come. Upon each he concentrates his mind. All the world besides is excluded; before his mental vision stands only that one problem. He goes to the very bottom of it, sometimes quickly, sometimes slowly, but always surely. He wants to know all about it,—literally all. The chief who brings forward an incompletely prepared case is merely sent back for the rest of it. If a link is missing

from the chain of facts, the eye of the Secretary is sure to detect its absence. Mr. Root is never hurried. Once his mind centers on a piece of business, it matters not how many other pieces are waiting in the hands of impatient chiefs grouped about his desk. This one must be finished, and be finished right. The consideration must be thorough. He is oblivious to the flight of time. Those others are fidgety; a dozen Senators may be waiting in the anteroom; it is the hour for luncheon or dinner. No matter. That compressed-air intellect calmly continues driving the drill through all the strata of facts and contradictions until it strikes the bed rock of truth. Five minutes, or fifty minutes, it is all the same; it must be done. A task once begun must be finished. Once finished—at bed rock—it is a closed case; it passes out of his mind; he is ready for the next proposition, and that in turn is put through the same process. He cleans up his work as he goes along; and is thus able always to look forward,—need waste no time in harking back.

Near the close of a long, hard day,—an extended series of these compressed concentrations,—Mr. Root may show signs of fatigue. He droops a trifle; the freshness is worn off. "But if at such a moment I carry to him a new problem, one so complex that it demands the very best thought for its solution," said one of Mr. Root's subordinates, "his face lights up, his eyes flash, vigor returns, and the machinery of his intellectual processes starts anew at full speed. A hard problem is to him a challenge which he eagerly accepts and grapples with, just as the tired hunter, wending his way wearily homeward at the end of a chase, starts up again on encountering new and interesting game. Killing problems is genuine sport for Mr. Root. He loves it; he never leaves a trail till he has got his game; and if we put him on the scent near the close of a day, some one has to go in and tell him it is time for dinner."

IMPERSONAL ATTITUDE TOWARD SUBORDINATES.

Let us have some more glimpses of this most interesting personality through the eyes of those who have worked with and under him through these years of toil and achievement:

"Mr. Root has not what we call affection for men. He likes men for what they do, not for themselves. His mind is essentially impersonal. He is invariably more interested in the object in view than in the man who is doing the work. Men to him are mere instrumentalities. He has the power of getting out of men the best that is in them, not through affection, but by a sort of intellectual stimulus which amounts almost to

hypnotism of the will. He is a judge of men on the strength and capacity side of their natures,—and the other side he cares nothing about. In selecting men for tasks he has the instinct of the animal in choosing the food that is best for it. He rarely permits himself the luxury of a personal liking; and when he does, this attachment never interferes with his judgment. He is like the wise physician who may be fond of his patient, but will not permit that patient to eat, drink, and do what he likes, but compels him to deny his tastes and take his medicine. He has a sincere fondness for General Corbin, but he would not make Corbin the first chief of the general staff. A man may think he is very close to Mr. Root; may even dream that he is a dominating force. Suddenly he will wake up and find that he is not indispensable. He uses men as his instruments, according to need, time, and place. After using them he does not throw them away like a squeezed orange, but puts them aside, to be taken up again when needed."

A MASTERFUL INTELLECT.

"He does not inspire affection in men. But he does stimulate the most intense admiration. There is an indescribable charm in his deep, strong personality which draws men to him. Great as has been his power in office, his

greatest power is in his intellect. I have never ceased to marvel at his mental processes. Put a problem to him, and his mind is like a chemical retort. The elements are mixed, fixed, fused, resolved, and presently the product comes forth clear as crystal."

"Mr. Root's mind," said another of his intimate associates, "has often reminded me of that

MRS. NANCY W. BUTTRICK ROOT.
(Mother of Elihu Root.)

most perfect and beautiful piece of machinery—a modern printing press. Feed into it the facts,—the paper, the ink, the metal plates,—and it reduces everything to order. Every part works perfectly. And out of it come the clean sheets, stamped, folded, counted, ready for the enlightenment of the world."

"He is the finest example of mental and physical discipline I ever saw. Men say he is 'cold'; I say he is cool. He is never flustered. He never breaks out in excited utterance. He is never 'rattled.' When there comes an unpleasant surprise, whereat other men would exclaim, use adjectives and expletives, he simply knits his brow, looks for the remedy, marshals his forces, and quietly goes to work to make that come right which had started wrong. His mind is in such a state of discipline that he takes on and puts off work as he does his hat or his coat. When he is interested he is intense, and when he takes up a thing never likes to put it down till it is finished. But he has learned to conserve his strength. Mrs. Root once told me that a few

PROFESSOR OWEN ROOT.

(Father of Elihu Root. Professor of mathematics, Hamilton College, 1849-61. Died in 1865.)

years ago he used often to get up in the night and go at a problem which had not been worked out. He does not do that any more. He is completely master of himself, his mind and his mood. He has full control of his feelings as well as of his faculties. He has deep feeling—but he never shows it. He never mourns over that which is past or lost. If a fight is on, he fights. If beaten, he does not repine; he only starts a new campaign."

In confirmation of this another said: "Mr. Root's greatest disappointment in Washington was the first defeat of the general staff law in Congress. I was with him every day, and I never heard him exclaim or free his mind as to the stupidity of the statesmen. He simply concluded he had not won his case because he had not presented it right, and went to work to prepare it anew. This time he won."

HIS MANNER OF SPEECH.

Mr. Root has made in my hearing a great number of statements concerning the public business, for publication or for my information. I wish I could give you a picture of the man as he appears to me at such moments. He speaks slowly, as a rule. One gains the impression that every single word has been pondered before it is uttered. Every word is an essential part of the thought,—a product of the thought, not a forerunner of it. With many of us words burst forth and are themselves inciters of ideas. It is not so with Mr. Root. The word is purely the instrument or tool of his mental process, and, like his mind, it must be direct, simple, the best for a particular place and purpose. Language is simply a quotient of the logical operations of his brain; it is never a plaything, nor an exercise. His analyses demand certain formulæ for their expression; his logic completely controls his rhetoric,—his rhetoric never molds or affects his logic. The result is, of course, a marvelous precision of statement,—a quality for which he is noted in cabinet council, in court, in legislative committee, in his department, in all his relations with men. Sometimes there is a pause of many seconds between words in the middle of a sentence,—a pause almost painful and provocative of helpful suggestion. But it is not for lack of the word he waits,—the form of thought is shaping itself, and running on ahead. When the word comes it is exactly the right word. And when the statement is finished, it is finished. There is nothing to change, nothing to add, nothing to take away. It is complete, perfect, like a well-cut diamond. His stenographers tell me that all his dictation is like this. Revision is rare with him, simply be-

cause revision is not needed. You cannot gild refined gold.

Mr. Root has a wonderful memory. The chiefs of the many bureaus of the War Department tell me that he understands the details of their work as well as they themselves do. Often he amazes them by citing facts or acts, and even dates which have slipped out of their grip. Often, too, a principle of law placed in his consciousness many years ago presses forward as a present-hour criterion. "When I tried such and such a case in court in 1875," he will say, "the court held so and so. That rule applies here." Nothing that goes into that mind seems ever to be lost; it is simply stored. Such a mind gathers strength with years; and I once caught myself wondering what this intellect would be—how near to perfection it might attain—could it go on, say, for a hundred years. It is a radium-like intellect; the more it gives off the more it appears to have left. It is a mind which has compass of details as well as of principles: it is both microscopic and telescopic.

OTHER QUALITIES OF MIND AND HEART.

Mr. Root's greatest personal loss was the death of McKinley. Speaking to me once of the greatness of McKinley's character, he added: "I loved McKinley. I was past fifty when I entered his Cabinet, and I had never supposed that at that age one could form a new, a warm attachment for any living man. But I did."

And in a friendly intimacy running through four years these are the only words I can recall from Mr. Root's lips, to show that his feelings had been stirred in fondness for a man. For months after the death of McKinley, Mr. Root rarely mentioned the name of his departed chief. Still waters run deep.

I have not found any one who ever knew Mr. Root to lose his temper. Angry he gets now and then, like all mortals, but he never shows it. He is too much a self-disciplinarian for that. Emphatic he can be, and often is, as occasion demands, but he is never explosive. Of all the men I ever knew, I think he is the one who has in his time uttered the fewest words which he afterward regretted. He is caution itself,—that is, he takes care and pains, and does everything with deliberateness. But he is, too, the boldest of men. He does not know what it is to be timorous in the face of responsibility. Responsibility is to him a mere routine, an incident of action. His associates tell me they have often been amazed at the intrepidity with which he reached and announced important decisions without seeking counsel with the President or the moral support of any man. He has an instinct-

ive, an absolute confidence in the integrity of his own mental processes. Once he has satisfied himself he is right, he is never harassed by suspicions that he may be wrong. He has added up his column of figures; the sum is correct, and that's the end of it.

MR. ROOT'S CHANGED ATTITUDE TOWARD PUBLIC OPINION.

Mr. Root was not born to be a politician. It is not in his nature to stop and ask, how is this to be received? What will public opinion say? Having sought the truth, and the right action, and having acted, it is not in his philosophy to suppose that any one may complain, or that it is necessary to take steps toward popularizing the right. That to him seems an absurdity.

During the early days of his administration certain unpleasant statements of alleged facts concerning affairs in the Philippines were made much of in the newspapers. The Government was savagely criticised. Secretary Root was asked for information. He contented himself with a general denial; the statements were not true. But the criticisms continued; and a little later a friendly newspaper writer called on the Secretary and asked for something more than a bare denial, for some material on which he could work. Mr. Root was not interested.

"Why should I pay any further attention to these reports?" he asked. "They are untrue. I have said they are untrue. Is that not enough?"

"But they affect public opinion," protested the newspaper man; "you ought to have the support of the newspapers."

"What for?" was the reply. "Does that make any difference?"

But Mr. Root has grown since then. He could not attend the McKinley school without learning that public opinion is, next to the right, the most important factor in a government like ours. Purely as a part of the process of attaining results, simply as a means to the end in view, he has learned his lesson. He has learned that even the best of administrators cannot thrive unless he has the public with him, and that the best way to influence the public is to give it the facts. In the administra-

tion there is now no one more skillful than Mr. Root in the management of these campaigns of education,—these efforts to keep public opinion straight by keeping it well informed. That he has so well learned this lesson, with his natural bent all the other way, is good proof of his growth and of his mental discipline. He feels instinctively that if a thing is right, that is enough; but if the world is so organized that one must go out and make the truth popular, well, he will do it, and do it as well as he can. Even now he refuses to "trim" or modify as to essentials or because of any one. A Senator once said Mr. Root had no proper place in a republican government; that he belonged to a monarchy. But the Senator has changed his mind, and says now that Root is just the sort of man a republic needs more of, as there are always plenty of the other kind.

HIS INFLUENCE ON SUBORDINATES.

Some very strong men repel,—stun, as it were, their inferiors, through the aggressiveness of their strength. Mr. Root is the sort of strong man who stimulates his inferiors, lifts them up toward his level; not through personal magnetism, but because he is so quiet, so deep, so receptive. In his presence one is not timorous, only anxious to be at his best, and conscious of an impulse to be careful. Mr. Root has been described to me by the best-informed official of the War Department as a man who not only puts others to work, but works himself, and achieves the first

largely through the latter. He is modest, but is not afflicted with mock modesty. He unconsciously gives credit and praise to his subordinates, and rarely speaks of himself; but if required by circumstances to speak of his own work, will do so frankly. He is not impatient of opposition, but regards it merely as a quantity, impersonal, and rides over it. Obstacles stimulate him, but he is not bullheaded. He is tolerant of all human weaknesses, loquacity alone excepted.

MR. ROOT'S EARLY LIFE.

The career of this interesting man? We have already sketched in outline the very best of it,—these four and a half years of achievement as the master-wheel of the government machine. Born on the campus of Hamilton College, at Clinton, N. Y., a graduate of that school, the son of a scholarly professor of mathematics, Oren Root, himself a teacher for a year, then a law student in New York City, a practising lawyer who made his way rapidly, his first big victory at the bar being the winning of an important case in the Court of Appeals, with such giants as Charles O'Connor and Samuel J. Tilden against him, the possessor of a practice which earned for him each month as much as Uncle Sam has paid him per annum for the past four years of his life, United States District Attorney, an "organization" Republican, chairman of the Judiciary Committee of the New York State Constitutional Convention of 1894, and, finally, Secretary of War. It is a coincidence that he was the warm friend and counselor of Chester A. Arthur when fate called Mr. Arthur to the White House, and was the warm friend and counselor of Theodore Roosevelt when he became President. Mr. Root has been the strongest personal force in the McKinley administration. He is the same in the administration of Mr. Roosevelt. On him the young President has leaned more than on any other man, and had Mr. Hay retired with the death of McKinley, Mr. Root would have become Secretary of State.

THE MAN OF TO-DAY

Mr. Root is devotedly attached to Hamilton College, where his sons were educated. Adjoin-

MR. ROOT'S SUMMER RESIDENCE AT CLINTON, N. Y.

ing the campus he has a "farm" of three hundred acres, built up round the nucleus of the family homestead. Here his father planted and tended with loving care trees and shrubs and plants innumerable, culled from the whole world, and here Mr. Root finds his chief pleasure, apart from work and family. He has a passion for nature. All out-of-doors appeals to him. The trees and shrubs speak to his ears a language which few understand. He is fond of society and of the companionship of his few intimate friends, but society and friends alike must go to him—he is so constituted that he will not seek them. He loves a good horse, a good novel, a glass of good wine, a good cigar, a good (if clean) story. He has a dry wit and a daring, incisive irony which are celebrated in Washington.

At fifty-eight Elihu Root looks like a man of forty-five. He is tall, athletic, finely proportioned, active. Hair and mustache are black without a tint of gray; the face is ruddy and smooth with health, the brown eyes are clear and sparkling.

"As a boy, Mr. Root," I asked him, "what was your ambition?"

"To be a lawyer in New York."

"Then you knew from the first what you wanted to be?"

"Yes."

"And your ambition now?"

"Is to be a lawyer in New York again, as I shall be within a few weeks."

JOSEPH L. BRISTOW: THE ARGUS OF THE POST-OFFICE DEPARTMENT.

BY CLARENCE H. MATSON.

ONE midnight, in the spring of 1893, an angry mob surged through the streets of a small Western city. A negro, accused of a heinous crime, lay in the county jail. The mob rushed for the prison, but was beaten off by an armed force. Infuriated by the repulse and thirsty for human blood, it again attacked the guards and this time overpowered them. A few minutes work with a battering-ram and the mob secured its intended victim.

Meanwhile a handful of law-abiding but determined citizens had heard of the commotion, and had gathered at the outskirts of the mob. They knew there was doubt as to the negro's guilt of the accusation against him, and they determined to save him. Their leader was a tall, gaunt, young Kentuckian, a comparative newcomer in the community, but the editor of the one daily paper of the town. The little group of men quietly worked their way to the center of the mob. Already a rope had been placed around the terrified negro's neck, and he was half-dragged along the street. At length a stop was made, and the wretched victim was asked if he had anything to say. He protested his innocence, and said he could establish it if given a chance in court. The mob was more anxious for blood than it was to avenge a crime, and cries of "hang him!" "hang him!" went up.

A lawyer, afterward a prominent judge and the candidate of his party for chief justice of the State's

Supreme Court, raised his voice in behalf of giving the negro a trial in court. The Kentuckian supplemented this plea with a similar one, but opposition only added to the fury of the mob, and the leaders began to drag their victim to the nearest telephone pole. As the pole was reached the Kentuckian gave the

HON. JOSEPH L. BRISTOW.
(Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General.)

negro a mighty shove past it. Fifty feet farther a door led into the stairway of an office building. Those in front tried to push the negro back, but the momentum of the Kentuckian and his few friends was too great, and half the distance to the stairway was speedily covered. Then came a struggle. The big Kentuckian hurled himself against the mob in front, while two or three of his friends guarded the negro from the rear. The stairway was reached, the rope was slipped from the negro's neck, and he was pushed through the door, followed by his rescuers. Then the Kentuckian turned in the doorway, and shaking his fists at the mob, he dared it to come within his reach. In one hand he shook his only weapon. It was—a small penknife. And as he stood there, his eyes flashing, and looking down at the angry crowd from his height of six-feet-three, he looked so much the picture of defiance and determination that the mob, robbed of its prey, fell back and slowly melted away. The negro was saved. It afterward developed that he was not only innocent, but that the very crime of which he was accused was a myth.

AN EXCEPTIONAL MAN FOR EXCEPTIONAL WORK.

The Kentuckian who saved the life of that negro ten years ago was Joseph L. Bristow, who is now prominent in the public eye as the man upon whom President Roosevelt has placed the responsibility of renovating the Post-Office Department of the United States,—a task of no small proportions; a task which, like the rescuing of the negro, requires courage and determination in a marked degree, although perhaps of a different kind. For four years he has been Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General, and twice in that period has the head of the nation selected him to probe official dishonesty in high places, believing that he would do it without favor to friend or fear of foe.

It is unusual that a minor official in a governmental department at Washington comes into public notice to such an extent and as favorably as has Mr. Bristow. It is no ordinary official whose services are such as to focus the eyes of the nation upon him, but twice has this happened to the present Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General. When President McKinley wanted the Cuban postal frauds thoroughly investigated, he selected Joseph L. Bristow to do it. And when President Roosevelt desired the conduct of the entire Post-Office Department probed in order to ascertain the truth of certain alleged abuses, the task again fell upon Mr. Bristow.

The man who was chosen for this work inherited the strong Kentucky character, which is

similar in many respects to that of Abraham Lincoln,—the character which places honesty and honor above everything else, the characteristic which has formed the groundwork of Mr. Bristow's greatest achievements in the public service. To this he added more than twenty years of life on the prairies of Kansas, some of them years of hardship and privation, which developed his genius for work,—hard, persistent work. After his marriage, and when most young men have given up hope of further school days, he educated himself for the ministry of the Methodist Episcopal Church, but accidentally drifted into politics. These are the forces which entered into the preparation for his unexpected public career.

EDUCATED FOR THE METHODIST MINISTRY.

It was in northeastern Kentucky, near Flemingsburg, that Mr. Bristow was born, forty-five years ago, and there he lived until he attained manhood; but, deprived of many school privileges, he had acquired almost no education. Then he turned his eyes to the West. He emigrated to Kansas and settled on a homestead among the hills in the southern part of the Sunflower State, and there, with his young wife, he settled down to the life of a Kansas stock-raiser. In education, he was probably not the equal of half the farmers around him. He was untutored and unlettered, but he became ambitious for a wider sphere than that of the farm. He wanted something higher; he desired to achieve something. Realizing that he was handicapped by his lack of education, he remained on his farm only long enough to accumulate a few hundred dollars, and then he moved his family to Baldwin, the seat of Baker University, the largest Methodist college of Kansas, and started in at the bottom, with a determination to complete the college course and become a Methodist minister.

And he did go through college; but before he entered the ministry other duties demanded his attention. It meant hardship and privation and grit and determination to spend so many years in college with a family to support, but he accomplished it. He developed a leadership in college, and secured his first political training in college politics. Associated with him during his college days were three other prospective Methodist preachers, and together they formed a quartette of college leaders. The other three were William A. Quayle, an Irish farmer boy; Don S. Colt, the son of a pioneer preacher; and Edward Randall, another farmer boy. Quayle became president of his *alma mater*, but resigned after a few years, and is now one of the most distinguished Methodist minis-

ters of the country, located at Kansas City. Colt is pastor of the First Methodist Episcopal church of Baltimore, and Randall is pastor of a large church of the same denomination in Seattle. This was the sort of environment which surrounded Mr. Bristow during his college career.

NEWSPAPER EDITOR AND POLITICIAN.

Toward the close of his college life he supported his family by running a small weekly paper, and this led to his nomination, soon after his graduation, for clerk of the district court of Douglas County on the Republican ticket. This is the accident which took him away from the ministry and into politics. After serving four years in the county office, he purchased the *Salina Daily Republican*, and as an editor became a power in State politics. He was elected secretary of the Republican State Central Committee, and during his second term in that capacity he aided in organizing Kansas for McKinley's Presidential candidacy prior to the national convention of 1896. Two years later, McKinley, then President, recognizing his genius for work and his ability to grasp details, appointed him Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General.

AS ASSISTANT POSTMASTER-GENERAL.

That this post requires great attention to details is shown by the fact that of 75,000 postmasters in the United States, 69,000—the minor, petty ones—are appointed by the Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General, and in each case there are recommendations and papers to be examined, and in some of them protests to be considered and weighed. In addition to that, the division of inspection,—the secret-service work of the Post-Office Department—is under the supervision of the Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General. If a registered letter is tampered with, if a post-office is burglarized, if there is a complaint concerning the manner in which an employee of some far-distant post-office performs his duties, the Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General must have his inspectors carefully examine the case and make a detailed report.

THE CUBAN POSTAL INVESTIGATION.

So thoroughly and honestly was all this work done that when reports came to the surface of postal frauds in high circles in Cuba after the Spanish-American War, President McKinley sent Mr. Bristow to Cuba to make a personal investigation of the charges. His report and its results are matters of history. It required courage to make it, but the courage was forthcoming, and men high in authority and influence were brought face to face with prison

stripes. This, of course, made Mr. Bristow formidable enemies. Those whom his report condemned had powerful friends who refused to recognize the fact that the "Fourth Assistant" had done only his duty in bringing the offenders to justice. Some of these enemies began to plot against him. There was too much danger to their scheming with a man like him in a position to find out things, and the worst of it was that he could be neither bribed nor frightened into keeping still when it became his official duty to speak. About once every three months since Mr. Bristow made that report an attack has been made on him, and repeatedly the rumor has gone out from Washington that he is about to lose his official head, but the rumor has always lacked confirmation by the proper authorities.

UNEARTHING CORRUPTION IN THE SERVICE.

When Mr. Roosevelt succeeded to the Presidency these attacks were made with renewed vigor, but President Roosevelt was not long in finding out that the Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General was a man after his own heart. Accordingly, when rumors of corruption in various divisions of the postal service became so well grounded as to present the semblance of verity, the President followed the footsteps of his predecessor and selected Mr. Bristow to ferret out the wrong-doers, if any there should be, and one day last March he sent for the Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General and laid the matter before him. Mr. Bristow quietly organized his forces for what must be regarded as one of the most important moves of President Roosevelt's administration,—the elimination, to as great an extent as possible, of fraud and corruption from the government service.

AN INDUSTRIOUS OFFICIAL.

Intense application to hard work, next to his honesty and hatred of fraud, has been Mr. Bristow's chief characteristic. Years ago, when he was editing his daily newspaper at Salina, Kan., it was his custom to awaken at 4 o'clock in the morning and block out his work for the day, including his editorials, which were always forceful and original. He looked after the minutest details of his business, and was often in his office until late at night. During 1895-96 he was secretary to Governor Morrill, of Kansas. Commenting on various persons who have held the position of secretary to the governor, Fred L. Vandegrift, a veteran Kansas newspaper correspondent who has known all the State's public men for two decades, recently said: "Bristow had no conception of the duties of a governor's secretary. A good secretary 'jollies' the politi-

cians, finds out their schemes and helps the governor in that way. Bristow thought a secretary ought to work and he wasn't happy unless he was buried in a lot of details instead of leaving them to the clerical force of the office."

These same habits of industry Mr. Bristow carried with him into the government service, and only his rugged constitution has kept him from breaking down from overwork. And, even with an iron constitution, he nearly lost his eyesight a year ago from too close application, and for several months he was compelled to have all his voluminous correspondence read to him.

EXPERIENCE WITH KANSAS LOTTERIES.

Mr. Bristow began the exposure of fraud long before he became connected with the Post-Office Department. During his first campaign as secretary of the Republican State Central Committee of Kansas, he became convinced that some of those high in authority in the Populist administration, which then controlled the State government of Kansas, were in league, through the metropolitan police, with a gang of lottery manipulators and policy-dealers in Kansas City, Kansas,—not common gamblers who preyed upon one another, but swindlers and confidence men who secured the earnings of the poor by the thousands of dollars. He secured positive information that this was the case, and he published it broadcast throughout the State, with the result that not only was the Populist administration overthrown and Republican officials elected, but the succeeding legislature passed what are probably the most stringent laws against lotteries and gambling in the United States.

THE REPORT ON THE POSTAL FRAUDS.

Something of Mr. Bristow's ability to grasp details and at the same time to cover a tremendous area in a comparatively brief time is shown by the magnitude of his report of the investigation of the postal frauds, recently made public. The plan of the investigation, first, had to be mapped out; then, as one fact after another was unfolded, clues had to be followed up and evidence collected. Of all the mass of facts which over forty trained men gathered in months of work, those pertinent to the subject had to be gleaned and separated from those having no bearing on the matters under investigation. And after all this great mass of facts had been collected, it was necessary to reduce them to a system, and then formulate the report.

A THOUSAND OFFICES INVESTIGATED.

No similar inquiry or investigation of more than a small fraction of the magnitude of this one was ever before undertaken in the history of governments. More than forty inspectors,—men who are trained in ferreting crime,—were employed in the work continuously for months. It required the examination of the records in more than one thousand post-offices. Hundreds of people were questioned and cross-examined. The books of bankers and corporations were looked into, and records and accounts in various divisions of the Post-Office Department for a decade were dug up. Probably no one will attempt to deny its thoroughness,—the length of the report necessary to record the investigation would indicate that. And thoroughness is one of Mr. Bristow's characteristics.

FACTS IMPARTIALLY STATED.

Another characteristic of this Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General is shown by his refusal to be drawn into controversies over the report with those whose wrong-doings have been uncovered. His attitude is that he has simply recorded the facts regardless of whom they have affected. He has not drawn conclusions. As fast as incriminating facts have been brought to light, they have been placed in the hands of the proper federal officers, and courts and grand juries were left to draw the conclusions.

Still, Mr. Bristow is not the sort of man to dodge trouble if it lies in his line of duty. He would not be true to his Kentucky breeding if he were to seek to avoid unpleasantness when it devolves upon him to face it. Few men are possessed of moral force and courage, combined with tenacity of purpose, to the degree that this Assistant Postmaster-General is. In the present instance, however, he has deemed it his official duty simply to state the facts which have been brought to light by his investigation, with neither excuse nor incrimination.

The United States Post-office Department is the greatest business enterprise in the world, yet this investigation has shown that its administration in some divisions has been honeycombed with corruption for a number of years. It also has become apparent that the entire department needs a reorganization on more business-like principles, and this may be one of the most important results of Mr. Bristow's investigation.

THE TEXAS CATTLE FEVER: HOW SCIENCE IS WINNING A LONG FIGHT.

BY PROFESSOR CHARLES SHIRLEY POTTS.

(Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas.)

TEXAS has always been noted as a cattle country. It forms a part of the great open prairie region stretching along the western edge of the Mississippi Valley from the Dakotas to the Gulf. Its prairies in early times, in common with those farther north, furnished pasturage for immense herds of buffalo, which supplied the Indian with meat and furnished the early settler with his first staple article of export. When the first hardy pioneer pushed through the wilderness of Louisiana, he found the Texas ranges well stocked with Spanish cattle from Mexico. As a result, the State immediately came into great repute among the cattle-grazing regions of the world,—a reputation which has been fully sustained down to the present time. According to the census of 1900, the State now leads all others in the number and value of her cattle. In the number of cattle, Texas equals all the States east of her and south of the Ohio and the Potomac, while the value of her stock exceeds theirs by more than thirty-six million dollars.

"UP THE TRAIL."

At an early date, it was discovered by Texas stockmen that cattle take on flesh much more rapidly in the cooler climate of the States farther north than they do on the ranges of Texas. Besides, there was no market at home for Texas stock. So cheap were cattle in Texas before the war that large numbers were slaughtered for their hides and tallow, and at Rockport and St. Mary's may still be seen the old piers constructed for the purpose of shipping these products to the outside world. Under such circumstances, Texas stockmen began to drive their young cattle northward to the prairies of Kansas, Nebraska, and the Dakotas; there to be fattened and then driven to market. The drift northward had begun in the decade preceding the outbreak of the Civil War, but it was not until 1866 that the great exodus began. After that date, during the spring and summer months of each year, hundreds of thousands of cattle were driven "up the trail" to the Northern pastures. The present writer remembers hundreds of herds, —sometimes ten thousand cattle in a single herd,

—that were driven past his father's farm west of Fort. Worth, beginning their long, weary journey over the unsettled areas to the Northwest. The principal trail led from Fort Griffin, in northwestern Texas, to Dodge City, Kan., and was known as the "Fort Griffin and Dodge City Trail." From Dodge City the cattle were distributed over the prairies of Kansas or were driven still farther north. Those were the days of the genuine "cowboys," those dauntless heroes of the savage frontier whose privations and deeds of daring have won for them such lasting renown.

During the twenty years from 1867 to 1887, by which date the movement over the trail had nearly ceased, it is estimated that not less than six million head of Texas cattle were driven northward, the largest drive in any one year being in 1871, when six hundred thousand young "Texans" were turned loose on the pastures of the North. The movement of cattle to the northward still goes on to the extent of about four hundred thousand head annually, but the trail has been superseded by the railroad, and it is quite probable that Northern corn-fields are now as much sought after as Northern pastures.

TROUBLE ON THE TRAIL.

The movement of Texas cattle northward had hardly begun before it was noticed that a malignant disease broke out among native cattle along the trail over which the driven herd had passed. Kansas stockmen, living along the trail or on the prairies where the Texas cattle were located, lost from 50 to 90 per cent. of their cattle. The disease raged throughout all the States of the middle West. In the spring of 1868, large numbers of Texas cattle were shipped up the Mississippi and scattered through the States of Illinois, Indiana, and Kentucky. The disease broke out in almost every community where Texas cattle were located. In one Illinois community five thousand cattle died of "Texas fever," and in another eighteen thousand. One Illinois farmer started three hundred and twenty fat cattle to market after they had been in contact with cattle from Texas; two hundred and twenty-

four died before they reached their destination. According to the health officers of Chicago, in 1868 every cow but one living within two miles of the stock-yards where Texas cattle were kept perished of the dread disease. All over the West a strong feeling grew up against admitting Texas cattle, and, in some cases, force was used by stockmen along the trail to protect their cattle from destruction. Nor was the alarm caused by the disease confined to the West. Infected cattle had been shipped to the Eastern markets, and were dying along the way and in the New York stock-yards. The question as to the effect of such diseased flesh upon human health was a new one, and caused much uneasiness. The matter was taken up by the cattle commissioners of New York State, and the board of health of New York City made a vigorous effort to check the importation of diseased cattle from the West.

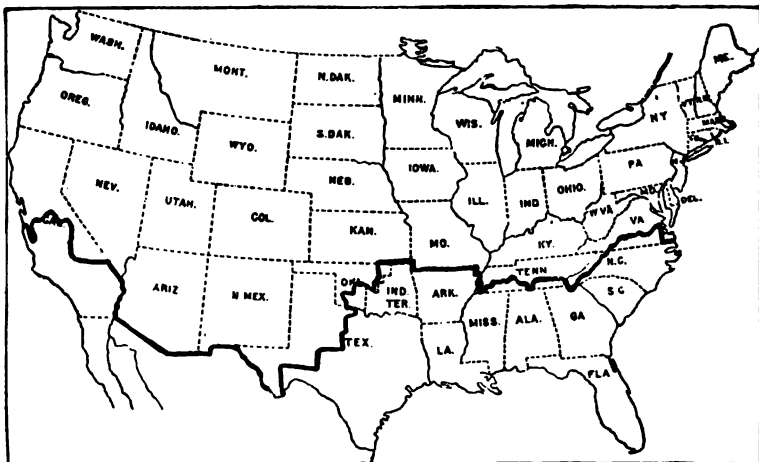
THE QUARANTINE LINE.

Although the disease is known as Texas fever, it must not be supposed that Texas is the only infected area. It has long been known that cattle from certain sections of the Atlantic States have the power of transmitting disease to cattle raised in higher latitudes. In 1796, a herd of South Carolina cattle was driven to Lancaster County, Pennsylvania, and a little later a deadly disease broke out among the native cattle of that and surrounding counties. As early as 1837, the Legislature of North Carolina passed a law to prevent cattle from South Carolina and Georgia being driven across certain mountainous districts of the State, as it was found that they spread a dangerous disease among the native cattle.

These known facts, together with their painful experience with Texas cattle, led many of the Northern and Western States to adopt rigid quarantine regulations against cattle from the Southern States. Southern stockmen complained bitterly of this discrimination against their cattle, claiming that the Southern cattle were perfectly healthy, and that it was a mere accident that in a few cases destructive plagues had broken out soon after their arrival in the North. But the Northern stockmen "stood pat," even though they were unable,—in the absence of any knowledge

of the cause and transmission of the disease,—to show any causal connection between the presence of Southern cattle and the outbreak of the plague. Kansas, Illinois, and most of the other cattle States of the West refused to admit cattle coming from below the thirty-sixth parallel of latitude. Finally, the United States Department of Agriculture became interested in the matter, and a thorough investigation of the boundary of the infected area was carried on under the supervision of Dr. D. E. Salmon, chief of the Bureau of Animal Industry. In February, 1892, an order was issued by the Secretary of Agriculture fixing the northern boundary of the infected area, as nearly as had been determined up to that time. This boundary has scarcely been changed since that time, and remains to-day as the Government's quarantine line, across which cattle from the South are not allowed to pass except at certain times of the year and under prescribed conditions. The line, as now determined, begins on the Atlantic coast in Virginia, passes in a westerly direction across the States of Virginia, North Carolina, and Tennessee, along the northern boundary of Arkansas and the Indian Territory, thence across Oklahoma and Texas to the Rio Grande. The southern part of California is also included in the infected area.

It is now known that Texas fever is not confined to North America. In Australia, the Argentine Republic, and South Africa stockmen are confronted with the same problems and dangers that have so long baffled our own experts, while in the Mediterranean area, and especially on the lower Danube, is found a cattle plague that closely resembles Texas fever.



APPROXIMATELY, ALL TERRITORY SOUTH OF THE HEAVY LINE CROSSING THE COUNTRY IS PERMANENTLY INFESTED WITH THE CATTLE TICK.



MAP OF THE WORLD, SHADED PORTIONS SHOWING WHERE TEXAS TICK IS KNOWN TO EXIST.

ORIGIN AND TRANSMISSION.

For a long time, the origin and manner of transmission of Texas fever was a profound mystery that baffled the scientific investigator no less than the practical stockman. The Southern cattle always seemed in perfect health, and no explanation of the outbreak of the plague could be given. At an early date, it was suggested that possibly the cattle tick had something to do with the transmission of the disease. This, however, was nothing more than a lucky guess, and led to no practical results. By 1868, the tick theory had acquired a wide acceptance among practical stockmen, but it was not confirmed by the results of investigations carried on by a large number of scientists. Dr. Gamgee, in 1868, said, "The tick theory has acquired quite a renown during the past summer, but a little thought should have satisfied any one of the absurdity of the idea." The officers of the metropolitan board and most subsequent observers seem to have held to the same view of the harmlessness of the cattle tick as a carrier of the infection. Although many stockmen continued to hold to the tick theory, the riddle remained unsolved for twenty years longer. The general confusion and uncertainty on the subject still existing in 1885 is shown by the following quotation from the historian Bancroft: "The generally accepted theory is that the disease exists in a latent state in the cattle of southern Texas, under conditions of food and climate which prevent impairment of the health of the animal; during the migration northward the latent cause of disease passes off in fecal matter, and is inhaled or taken into the stomachs of the Northern animals when they feed on the ground passed over by the Texas cattle."

Nothing positive was known in regard to either the cause of the disease or the manner of its transmission until the subject was taken up by the Bureau of Animal Industry in 1889.

Under the general supervision of Dr. D. E. Salmon, chief of the bureau, a systematic investigation of the subject was begun at the experiment station, near the city of Washington. In the laboratories of the station, one of the best pieces of biological research that this country has witnessed was carried on by Dr. Theobald Smith, chief of the Division of Animal Pathology, now a member of the Harvard medical faculty. One of the most characteristic symptoms of Texas fever in its acute stages is the loss of blood,

PORTION OF A STEER'S HIDE, SHOWING THE TEXAS FEVER TICK.

which, passing off with the urine, has given to the disease, in some countries, the name of "red-water." It had also been observed that the kidneys, liver, and especially the spleen were greatly enlarged and engorged with blood, from which fact the disease is sometimes known as "splenic fever." But Dr. Smith now demonstrated that the fever is not primarily a disease of these organs, but of the blood. He discovered the presence of a micro-parasite in the red corpuscles of the blood, by which the corpuscle itself is destroyed. There is an enormous multiplication of

these parasites during the earlier stages of the disease, resulting in the destruction of from one-fourth to three-fourths of the red corpuscles. These dead corpuscles are eliminated through the kidneys, and give rise to the characteristic symptoms of the disease. The same micro-organism was found in the blood of healthy Southern cattle.

While these discoveries were being made in the laboratories, equally important results were reached in the field experiments that were being carried on at the same time. Under the immediate direction of Dr. F. L. Kilbourne, a series of experiments was carried on, covering a period of three years, for the purpose of determining what part, if any, the cattle tick has in the transmission of Texas fever. From these experiments several important facts were definitely established. It appeared that the plague always broke out among Northern cattle when they were allowed to run on pastures occupied by "ticky" Southern cattle, or over which ticks picked from Southern cattle had been scattered. The same results were obtained when ticks were transferred directly from Southern to Northern cattle. Not only so, but even young ticks hatched artificially, which had never been in contact with Southern cattle, were found to transmit the fever when they were applied to Northern cattle or were scattered over the pasture occupied by them. On the other hand, Southern cattle were found to be entirely harmless if carefully cleared of ticks before being placed in the same pastures with the Northern animals. It was proved that the fever could not be contracted by taking the germs into the digestive tract, for large quantities of ticks were fed to susceptible animals along with their food without the least sign of the disease. On the other hand, it was found that the disease could be readily transmitted by inoculating susceptible animals with the blood

REGISTERED SHORTHORN BULLA, NOW ON THE KING RANCH.

drawn directly from the veins of cows suffering from the disease, or with the blood drawn from the veins of healthy Southern cattle, thus proving that the disease germs are always present in the blood of immune Southern cattle. It is of interest to note, in connection with the tick theory, that the transmission of disease germs by means of parasites, then entirely new, is now familiar to us all through the discovery that the mosquito is responsible for the spread of malaria and yellow fever.

Thus was more or less completely solved one of the most perplexing problems with which scientists have had to deal. The immediate cause of the fever was now known, and it had been proven that, aside from artificial inoculation, the cattle tick was the sole means of communicating the disease. With this information at hand, it was now possible to make an intelligent application of the quarantine regulations, and cattle free from ticks were allowed to pass to the Northern pastures. Great difficulty, however, has been experienced in getting rid of the ticks, and many dips and other remedies for ridding cattle of ticks have been proposed and tested. Among the numerous dips experimented with may be mentioned concoctions of tobacco, arsenic dips, carbolic emulsions, and various vegetable and mineral oils. But up to this time, no inexpensive dip has been found that will entirely cleanse the cattle of ticks without at the same time doing damage to the animals.

INOCULATION AND THE IMPROVEMENT OF SOUTHERN HERDS.

It should be borne in mind that there are two distinct problems presented by Texas fever. There is, on the one hand, the problem of getting Southern cattle across the quarantine line without endangering the cattle interests of the North

and West. On the other hand, there is the difficulty of bringing Northern cattle into the infected territory for the purpose of improving Southern herds. How great this difficulty really is will be appreciated when it is remembered that the Northern animals are transferred from their native pastures to a warmer climate, and at the same time are exposed to the ravages of Texas fever. In such cases, the mortality is usually very great, varying from 50 to 100 per cent., and probably averaging not less than 75 per cent. This fact is of great economic importance. The development of the cattle business in Texas and the other Southern States has been greatly retarded by this difficulty in importing blooded stock. This writer has a number of letters from some of the most prominent stockmen in Texas telling how they have imported scores of fine registered cattle, in some cases costing as much as five hundred and even a thousand dollars each, only to see the majority of them sicken and die of this fatal disease. To cite one example, the late Col. D. C. Giddings, of Giddings, Texas, says: "In 1872, I bought twelve head of shorthorn cattle from Kentucky,

TEXAS FEVER FROM INOCULATION.
(The attitude is characteristic.)

and lost 50 per cent. from Texas fever. In 1874, I bought eight head from Iowa, which cost \$250 each, and lost six out of the eight from Texas fever. This was a very fine lot of shorthorn cattle. In 1892, I bought sixteen head from Missouri, one-half of them shorthorn and the others Herefords. I lost 75 per cent. of this lot from Texas fever."

With such obstacles to overcome, it is not surprising to find that in most of the Southern States there has been very little improvement in the breeds of cattle. The *habitat* of the "native" or "scrub" cow is now almost identical with the tick-infested area. According to the census report, the average value per head of all neat cattle in Iowa was \$26.55. In Texas, it was \$17.31; in Georgia, \$9.82; and in Florida, \$8.44. If the breeds of cattle in the Southern States could be raised to the level of those of Iowa or Illinois, it would add \$60,000,000 to the wealth of Texas and \$100,000,000 to that of the other infected States. These facts greatly emphasize the importance of the problem of immunizing susceptible cattle, so as to make it possible to import breeding cattle from the North and from Europe.

As the losses caused by inability to import blooded



MAP OF TEXAS, SHOWING THE DISTRIBUTION OF MORE THAN ONE THOUSAND INOCULATED CATTLE.

stock into the infected area are less conspicuous than those resulting from outbreaks of the plague in the Northern States, this phase of the problem has received far less attention than the protection of the non-infected territory. Yet this question has not been neglected. It was observed that many young animals recovered from the disease, and were then practically immune against a second attack. Dr. Smith, in his report of 1892, suggested that it might be possible to immunize young cattle by producing in them a mild attack of the fever through controlled tick-infestation, or through inoculation with blood taken from animals suffering from Texas fever. A year or two later, inoculation was tried by the Government experts with fair success, but no practical use was made of it. In 1897, however, Dr. Mark Francis, at the Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas, began experimenting with inoculation, using blood drawn directly from the veins of healthy Texas cattle. This method is more desirable than mild tick-infestation, which was more favorably considered by Dr. Smith, for the disease germ seems to acquire an additional virulence during its life in the body of the tick, just as the malaria germ does in the body of the mosquito. In addition,

healthy natives are always accessible, and the amount of infection can be carefully controlled. In the following year, Dr. Francis was joined in the work by Dr. J. W. Connaway, of the Missouri Experiment Station, and in a short time very gratifying results were obtained. Inoculation has now passed beyond the experimental stage, and, in Texas at least, is rapidly solving the problem of the improvement of Southern herds. The year before Dr. Francis began inoculating, the government experts in Australia discovered, independently, that susceptible animals could be immunized by inoculating them with infected blood. That method is now being successfully used, not only in Australia, but in South America and South Africa as well.

As the fever is far less fatal when the weather is cool, Northern cattle are brought into Texas only in the fall and winter months. From November to March, the quarantine barns and cattle pens at the experiment station are kept full of blooded stock, usually calves under two years of age, undergoing the process of immunization. When they arrive at the station they are immediately inoculated with about one cubic centimeter of blood drawn from the veins of a healthy native animal. In a few days, the symptoms of

DR. J. W. CONNAWAY.

(Veterinarian, Mississippi Experiment Station.)

DR. THEOBALD SMITH.

(Of the Harvard Medical School, formerly chief of the Division of Animal Pathology, Bureau of Animal Industry.)

DR. MARK FRANCIS.

(Veterinarian, Texas Experiment Station.)

the disease appear. The calves pass through a primary and a secondary stage of the fever, and in about sixty days, should be well and ready to run at large on tick-infested pastures. As spring advances, and they become heavily infested with ticks, symptoms of Texas fever sometimes appear, but such cases are rarely fatal.

While the Texas and Missouri experiment stations have been most active in the work of immunizing by inoculation, some of the other Southern States have not been idle. The following table shows the number of cattle inoculated at the experiment stations of the several Southern States and the number of cattle that have died of the inoculation fever after leaving the stations:

Station.	Number inoculated.	Deaths from Texas fever.	By whom reported.
Alabama	46	4	Cary.
Arkansas	0	0	Dinwiddie.
Florida	26	3	Dawson.
Louisiana	200	7	Dalrymple.
Mississippi	200	12	Robert.
North Carolina	63	1	Butler.
South Carolina	200	4	Nesom.
Oklahoma	0	0	Lewis.
Missouri	1,800	144	Connaway.
Texas	2,028	187	Francis.
Total	4,562	362	

PRACTICAL BENEFITS TO SOUTHERN STOCK.

From the foregoing table, showing a death rate of 7.7 per cent., it will be seen that the problem of improving Southern herds is being solved. The mortality from Texas fever has been reduced from 75 per cent. to less than 10 per cent. By a conservative estimate, through the work of the Texas and Missouri experiment stations alone, there has been saved to the cattle interests of Texas not less than three hundred and fifty thousand dollars, and the work is now only well started. But more important than any direct saving are the new possibilities of Texas as a cattle country. The open-range and the long-horned steer are rapidly passing; and in their wake are coming the small stock-farm, the Hereford, and the shorthorn. With improved breeds, favorable climate, winter pasturage, practically no expense for housing, and the cheapest and best flesh-producing feeds; with a home market capable of absorbing the entire home product, and a great city of export near the future highway of the world's commerce, the stock interests of Texas are certainly entering upon a new era of growth and development, and all of this serves to illustrate once more the important truth that the scientific man is also the practical man.



THE STATUS OF THE SOUTHWESTERN OIL INDUSTRY.

BY DAY ALLEN WILLEY.

IT was a little over ten years ago—in 1892—that Patillo Higgins, the east Texas school-teacher, became convinced that petroleum existed in the section of the State where he lived, and succeeded in interesting several friends in the Gladys City Gas and Development Company. People in the vicinity, however, had so little faith in the scheme of Mr. Higgins and his company that it was not until an oil man from Pennsylvania chanced into this part of the Southwest that actual operations were begun, and the company existed in name only for nearly ten years. With the aid of the Northern oil man, it secured sufficient capital to begin boring a well a little less than four miles from Beaumont, which finally reached a deposit of petroleum, causing it to flow at a rate of over fifty thousand barrels daily, according to the estimate of experts. The Lucas "gusher," as it was named after the Pennsylvanian, marked an epoch not only in the industrial history of the Southwest, but in the oil industry of the world, for never before nor since has such a quantity of liquid issued from a single opening in the earth in a day.

THE RISE AND FALL OF THE BEAUMONT BOOM.

It is somewhat singular that the Lucas was among the first wells as well as the greatest in the southeast Texas field, but the news of the "strike" spread with such rapidity that other prospectors, who had also begun operations, redoubled their efforts, and fortune-seekers flocked to this portion of the United States from all parts of America. Land in the vicinity of the gusher which, before the discovery, had sold for \$40 an acre was divided into lots and disposed of in some instances as high as \$40,000 for an acre. Probably the most notable increase in the value of real estate was in a portion of what is now known as the Spindle Top district, where a tract which had been valued at \$8 an acre was sold at \$35,000.

The land with the prospects of oil was far more valuable than the oil itself at the beginning of the "boom," as was indicated by the rise in the values of property. In addition to the sales already referred to, when the "Beatty gusher" came in the company which owned it sold the well, with thirty acres of land adjoining, to a

syndicate for \$350,000 in cash and \$2,000,000 in shares of a company formed by the new purchasers. This well, which was perhaps next in size to the Lucas, reached the oil-bearing sand on March 26, 1901. In July following, the stock of the company which purchased the well, although capitalized at \$5,000,000, was selling rapidly at 75 cents a share, showing an actual valuation in the market of \$3,750,000, an increase of 1,000 per cent. in three months. Within two months after the Lucas well began producing, the records of Texas show that no less than four hundred companies had been organized to bore for oil, to sell land, to build refineries and pipe lines, or to deal in oil machinery, claiming to have a capital of \$175,000,000. Oil began issuing from the well in question on January 10, 1901. Within thirty days, seven more wells in the same district had begun producing at a rate estimated at from 10,000 to 25,000 barrels each daily.

Beaumont became the metropolis of the field, increasing its population from 10,000 to 30,000 in three months, yet in eighteen months from the time of the first discovery the apparent supply had diminished to such an extent in the Beaumont district that pumping machinery had been installed at nearly every boring, while 750 derricks, planted over "dry holes," had been abandoned. In July, 1902, records of the pipeline companies, the railroad companies, and other authorities equally as reliable showed that the aggregate daily production of the Beaumont field was but twice that of the single well which had caused such an influx of people and capital into eastern Texas. It was calculated at that time that about 100,000 barrels were being secured, principally by pumping, every twenty-four hours. This was all the operators had to show for an investment of no less than \$10,000,000, of which over \$1,000,000 had been expended in borings which were valueless, \$1,750,000 in producing wells, the balance of the outlay being for pipe lines, reservoirs, the purchase of land, and to construct five oil refineries.

OIL BY THE LAKEFUL.

At this point reference might be made in passing to the enormous quantities of oil which

FILLING AN EARTHEN RESERVOIR FROM A PIPE LINE.

were wasted just after the discovery of the gushers for the reason that the prospectors were almost wholly unprepared to husband the supply. In fact, the waste was criminal in its proportions, as some of the more reckless operators actually allowed the wells to throw their contents into the air by the pressure of natural gas in order to sell the land about them at fabulous prices. As is well known, this custom only ceased after a stringent law had been passed by the State Legislature prohibiting it. For nearly a week after it was "brought in," however, the Lucas well was entirely beyond control, and it is estimated that from this opening alone fully four hundred thousand barrels spread over the ground, filling the hollows for hundreds of feet around, and actually forming creeks of oil which extended several miles, before its force could be checked.

The Star and Crescent, as it was called, threw a stream six inches in diameter to a height of one hundred and fifty feet for several days before it was finally capped, and from this alone an enormous quantity was wasted; but there is no question that millions of barrels,—a close estimate can never be determined,—were wasted for exhibition purposes or for lack of storage facilities during merely the first three months

after the beginning of the development at Beaumont. When the people began to realize that steps must be taken to secure the supply, earthen reservoirs were first dug in the vicinity of the wells, and the liquid allowed to flow into them through open ditches like so much water. The Higgins Lake, as it is still called, was a fair type of one of them. Although covering several acres, and in places being twenty feet in depth, it was filled nearly to the top of its banks in a few weeks after being excavated. A large percentage of the oil escaped from these reservoirs, soaking through the banks of earth of which they were formed, while it so deteriorated from exposure and the impurities it contained that much of it was sold at prices ranging from three to ten cents a barrel.

DESTRUCTIVE FIRES.

With the district literally saturated with the fluid, it was not strange that it should have suffered from some of the most disastrous fires in the history of the petroleum industry. They not only consumed the oil, but destroyed a large amount of property in the form of derricks, machinery, and tanks. The most destructive of these fires originated in the Hogg-Swayne tract, in the Spindle Top district, in September, 1902,

destroying over one hundred derricks, while at one time fifty of the largest wells were ablaze. No less than twenty men lost their lives by reason of this disaster. The "Ten Acre" fire, as it is still known in the Southwest, covered an area of this extent and continued over a week, dying out after it had consumed everything upon which the flames could feed. Probably the entire district was only saved from destruction by throwing up banks of earth about the fire and confining the burning oil in this manner. Some of the smaller fires have been extinguished by the application of powerful steam jets obtained by connecting several boilers with pipe lines and allowing the steam to play upon the flames continuously.

TANKS, PIPE LINES, AND REFINERIES.

This brief history of the unfortunate experiences in the Southwestern field has much significance, as it indicates how the industry has survived not only the many financial reverses, but the disasters from fire. While experience has been a bitter teacher it has been a good one, and the present development of the territory is being carried out on an economical and conservative basis. The principal properties in the Beaumont district, as well as in Louisiana, have been concentrated, and are owned by comparatively few corporations and individuals, who

have ample capital to develop them, as well as to conserve the supply. No longer are wells bored to the deposits before storage has been provided for the possible product. In addition to the facilities provided by the transportation companies, pipe lines have been laid, to be extended to all new territory exploited. Up to 1902, it is estimated that the total number of covered reservoirs erected in the Beaumont district had a capacity of less than 500,000 barrels. At present the tank capacity of the State is fully 20,000,000 barrels, the majority of these receptacles being of metal, and some of the single ones holding 10,000 barrels each. When the Lucas gusher was "brought in," but one pipe line had been laid from Spindle Top to Port Arthur, the principal oil-exporting point for this field. At present five lines are in operation, carrying oil directly from the reservoirs to the tank steamships and barges, as well as to the refineries which have been erected in the vicinity of Port Arthur. These conduits have branches reaching the newer fields at Saratoga and Sour Lake as well, while a project is under way to construct a line north to Kansas City, in order to serve the various industries in that community which could utilize oil as fuel.

The value of the refined oil has been appreciated by the erection of fully twenty plants not only at Port Arthur, but directly in the field. It is

understood that the Standard Oil Company is interested in the refinery recently completed at Beaumont at a cost of four million dollars, which is one of the largest and best equipped in the United States. The fact that such a large output is controlled by a comparatively few owners has benefited the Southwestern industry, since they have been enabled to maintain prices at times when stocks were so large that smaller operators would have been compelled to sell their product below cost. As a result, oil at ten and fifteen cents per barrel is no longer heard of in this district, and the days when it was turned into ditches in the prairie, to be sold in some cases cheaper than water itself, have passed away.

OIL AS LOCOMOTIVE FUEL.

Naturally, the attention of the transportation companies and large manufacturers in the West was attracted to the apparently abundant supply of oil in the Beaumont field, and, taking advantage of the low prices at which the operators were forced to sell the product, they experimented with its use on an elaborate scale. Nearly all of the railroad companies equipped some of their locomotives with oil-burning apparatus and compared the results attained with those from the soft coal which had been used as engine fuel. The outcome of these experiments proved that from three and a half to

A SPOUTING WELL IN THE SOUR LAKE DISTRICT.

three and seven-tenth barrels of the ordinary Texas petroleum would evaporate as much water as a ton of the ordinary bituminous coal, and that at a cost of from fifty to sixty cents a barrel

the oil was fully 25 per cent. cheaper than the coal, considering the cost of its transportation from the nearest mines. But contracts were made to supply the oil in quantities as low as twenty-five and thirty cents per barrel, so that the transportation companies in many instances have probably reduced their fuel bills fully 50 per cent. by the substitution of the liquid. By its use the services of the firemen can be dispensed with in many instances, as the engineer can regulate the supply by merely the pressure of a valve, while a far larger quantity of the fuel could be carried in the tender by converting the space used for coal into an oil tank.

These advantages have more than made up the expense of equipping the en-

TYPES OF THE WOODEN TANKS ERECTED IN THE NEW OIL FIELDS.

(These are connected by pipe lines.)

dispensed with. They are in operation in California, and have given entire satisfaction.

THE OIL INDUSTRY ON A NEW BASIS AT BEAUMONT.

While a beginning has been made in the shipment of oil from the Southwest for export, the permanent demand for domestic consumption from the sources indicated has increased so rapidly that a strong incentive is given to continue the development of the fields and to open up new ones. This doubtless accounts partly for the changed conditions about Beaumont. It may be said that the industry hereabouts has taken on new life, but the operators are depending upon the actual value of the product for their returns, not upon the sale of securities of companies floated to promote speculative schemes, as in the past. They have installed the most modern machinery for pumping the wells, using not only steam, but pneumatic and electric power, with the result that some of the borings which had been abandoned as valueless are now yielding a sufficient quantity daily to make them well worth working. Some of the larger wells which were deserted because impregnated with salt water have been freed from this impurity by pumping. Experienced operators consider that the escape of the natural gas from the oil-bearing strata has been a benefit rather than an injury to the field, as the immense production of the gushers was due to this pressure, and the fact that the gushers have ceased to flow naturally is no proof that the oil supply has failed. Thus it is that while one sees hundreds of abandoned wells in and around Spindle Top, in the

CAMP OF OIL PROSPECTORS IN THE WOODS.

gines with oil-burners and tanks, the cost of which averages about \$150 to a locomotive, and recently the general manager of the Southern Pacific Railway has announced that all of the locomotives of that road are to be converted into oil-burners. This decision was reached after a trial made on the Western division with thirty-nine engines. They consumed 12,000 barrels of oil at a cost of \$3,600 in train service, which it is estimated would have required 4,000 tons of coal at a cost of \$20,000 at the prices paid for this fuel on the Pacific coast. This company has no less than 1,400 locomotives, so that its requirements alone would take a very large quantity from the Southwestern field; but the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé Company has about one hundred locomotives using oil, and will utilize it on additional engines during the next year, as well as the Missouri, Kansas & Texas, the Missouri Pacific, and other companies. Experiments made in sugar refineries, as well as irrigation pumping plants, rice mills, and other industries, indicate that oil at 50 cents per barrel is more economical than soft coal, and the sale of oil-burning machinery has become so extensive in Louisiana and Texas that this section is now one of the principal markets of the world for such equipment. Incidentally, it might be said that several locomotives have recently been built purposely for the burning of liquid fuel, and on these the services of the fireman are

TURNING A TEXAS FARM INTO AN OIL FIELD.

(The picture shows an orchard destroyed and buildings being torn down for the erection of derricks.)

A VIEW OF THE FAMOUS CANYON TRACT, WHICH ORIGINALLY COST \$38 AN ACRE AND SOLD FOR \$300,000 AFTER OIL WAS DISCOVERED ON IT.

same vicinity are sufficient operations to produce fully one million barrels monthly from the seventy-odd wells which are being worked. One of these wells, which represented an investment of \$25,000 by the original owner in the cost of the land and machinery, was sold by him to the present owner for \$500, because salt water had entered it and he considered it worthless. With the use of adequate pumping machinery, however, the water has been eliminated, and the well is considered to-day to be worth \$10,000.

OIL DISCOVERIES NORTH AND WEST OF TEXAS.

The rise and fall of the Texas oil boom was really spectacular in its magnitude, but perhaps it was fortunate that the industry was so quickly reduced from a speculative to a legitimate base, for it demonstrated that the field is by no means a failure, and that while the flow from the famous Spindle Top and other districts will probably never again assume any such proportions as attended the early development of the region, the deposits of oil are sufficiently large to insure a steady supply of considerable proportions for an indefinite period. Possibly the most important result of the activity in the Beaumont field, however, was the interest created in other por-

tions of Texas, as well as throughout the region west of the Mississippi River,—an interest which contributed to the discovery that oil-bearing strata are greatly diversified, and extend over an area which embraces not only Texas, but Indian and Oklahoma territories, Kansas, Nebraska, Wyoming, South Dakota, Colorado, and Idaho. The Chanute field in Kansas is recognized by experts as being one of the most important in the West. In the Sandhill region of Nebraska, groups of "rigs" are to be seen scattered here and there, and wells have been sunk in the very suburbs of Omaha. In the Poudre Valley, the traveler on the Union Pacific Railway can see derricks erected every few miles between the cities of Denver and Cheyenne, for indications of petroleum have been found throughout this part of the country. Passing from Cheyenne westward they are again familiar sights, for in a section of the State about four hundred miles in length nearly two hundred producing wells have thus far been drilled. The production of oil in California has been developed to such an extent that at present nearly sixteen million barrels yearly are being taken not only from the land, but from the sea itself, for in the outskirts of the town of Summerland the

ocean is studded with towers supporting well tubes which have been driven below the surface of the water.

As already intimated, the exploitation of the fields in eastern Texas has been an important

acres for \$900,000, although the land before the discovery of the oil could have been bought at \$10 an acre. What is known as the Cannon tract of ten acres was sold ten years ago at \$38 an acre. Within the last six months it has been divided into sections of an acre, selling in all for \$300,000. Another illustration of the rise in property is given in the Shoestring district, where a section of the forest containing one-sixteenth of a square mile was recently purchased for \$75,000. Two years ago, the site of the present city of Sour Lake was a stretch of prairie on the edge of the pine forest. At the beginning of the present year it was a village of

A VIEW OF THE CITY OF SOUR LAKE A YEAR AGO.

factor in arousing such widespread interest and, indirectly, in the greatly increased consumption of the fluid for fuel purposes in the South and West, but the supply field bids fair to be of much larger proportions as the well-borers advance north and west into the State, for districts lying just outside that of Beaumont have recently begun yielding oil to such an extent that no question remains but that here also are large deposits.

THE SOUR LAKE BOOM.

The development of what is known as the Sour Lake field may be cited as an illustration of the recent exploitation in the Southwest. At the time the excitement was at its height over the discovery of oil on Spindle Top, Sour Lake was a health resort, taking its name from springs which were supposed to contain medicinal properties. Traces of oil had been noticed in this section; but little importance was attached to the discovery, as indications have been found in so many places in the State. After the production in the Beaumont field began to diminish, however, and prospectors turned their attention to other regions, Sour Lake was visited by several parties, who determined to sink test wells. They were put down in the extensive pine forest which surrounds the springs, and oil found in such abundance that to-day over one hundred derricks are to be seen amid the trees, erected in rows so closely together that one portion of the field is termed the "Shoestring district." One company has purchased eight hundred and fifty

A RECENT PICTURE, SHOWING THE RAPID GROWTH.

but two hundred people. At present it has a population of nearly ten thousand, which is being increased at the rate of about one hundred weekly, as it is the nearest community to the newly discovered field.

As already stated, Sour Lake has been connected with Beaumont and Port Arthur by pipe lines, but provision has been made for a very large storage capacity, and although a large quantity of the oil from the first wells brought in was unavoidably wasted, the bulk of the present production is conveyed to storage tanks or sent directly to the refineries and the seaboard. The importance of this field can be realized when it is stated that at present it is producing fully two hundred and fifty thousand barrels monthly. So many new wells are being bored, however, that the output will probably be doubled within the next six months.

POSSIBILITIES OF THE SOUTHWESTERN FIELD.

The total production of the Southwestern petroleum belt, including the wells in Indian and Oklahoma territories and Kansas, is small when contrasted with the combined output of the other portions of the United States. In fact, the quantity which is still obtained from Pennsylvania,

West Virginia, and Ohio is far greater, but the extent of the possible field must be considered in comparing the Southwest with the older fields. In spite of the wells which have been bored, the number of all kinds is very small compared with those which can be counted to-day in western Pennsylvania, and it is a significant fact that the average flow of the wells in Texas and Louisiana is nearly five times as much per well as in either Pennsylvania or Ohio. As already intimated, oil has never flowed so abundantly from a single opening in any of the Northern States as in the territory about Jennings, in Louisiana, and Beaumont. The possibilities of what is called the Gulf coast field can be better appreciated when it is stated that it is known to extend as far as Jennings on the east and Sour Lake on the west, although the distance between these communities is about one hundred and sixty miles. The oil-bearing strata, according to geologists, are well defined throughout this region, but as yet even test wells have been bored in a very small portion. The fact has already been verified that there are series of deposits, for the boring tools at Beaumont, for instance, have penetrated as many as three underground lakes, one below the other, at depths ranging from 900 to 1,200 feet from the surface. The largest wells in Louisiana began flowing at a depth of 2,000 feet. Nearly all of the production which first made Spindle Top famous was taken from the upper oil-bearing sand, but since then a

number of the larger wells have been extended to the second and third deposits. There is also a probability that abundantly flowing wells may be located in portions of Texas where the oil is less than two hundred feet from the surface.

AN INDUSTRIAL FACTOR IN THE SOUTHWEST.

The expansion of this industry in the Southwest will also be aided on account of the favorable location of the oil fields. That running parallel to the Gulf coast is traversed not only by the Southern Pacific, but by several other railways, while its proximity to such seaports as New Orleans and Port Arthur allows its yield to be shipped to tide water at a very small expense compared with that imposed upon the product of Pennsylvania and the central West. This is an important advantage, not only in the export but in the domestic petroleum trade, and accounts for the fact that such a comparatively large quantity of Texas oil has already been sent to New York and other Northern cities. The convenience of this fuel and its low cost will also be an important factor in the general industrial expansion, especially of the Southwest, since it is available, as already stated, for such specialties as sugar-refining, the preparation of rice, and for the hundreds of pumping stations which have been erected for irrigation purposes in this section, to say nothing of the constantly increasing quantity which will be consumed as locomotive fuel.

A WALNUT ORCHARD IN SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA.

THE ENGLISH WALNUT IN SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA.

BY ELIZABETH ANTOINETTE WARD.

THE culture of the English walnut in southern California is one of the new and growing industries in that part of the State. Until recently, the Mediterranean countries were the only ones producing the nut for commerce, and the demonstration of its successful culture on the Pacific coast has been of enormous value to California.

The cradle of the industry was the Carpinteria Valley, a sheltered strip of coast near Santa Barbara. Here, in 1858, the first orchard was planted with seed from the Los Angeles Mission gardens, where the padres had started a few trees with nuts brought with them from Spain. The undertaking was a success from the first, and the acreage of walnuts has steadily increased,—slowly at first, but now with rapid strides. The walnut tree's early age of bearing, its long life, and the steady demand for its product tend to make the enterprise deservedly popular. Already it is superseding the orange in favor among fruit growers. The chief demands

of the tree are an equable climate, a deep rich soil, good drainage, and a good supply of water. Irrigation has been found necessary inland, but on the coast it is only resorted to in dry years.

The first consideration which confronts the orchardist is the variety of nut to be grown. An Easterner, while visiting the coast some years ago, was asked his preference as to oranges. "My preference!" he exclaimed. "Why, I supposed an orange was an orange." Perhaps there are some who share the same illusion about walnuts; but the grower has three varieties, commercially speaking, to select from, named, according to the thickness of the shell, hard, soft, and paper-shell. Each has its good points, but the general sentiment is in favor of the soft-shells, as those are the surest bearers and bring the best price. The hard-shell trees fall but little behind as favorites. The paper-shells are more erratic bearers, and the nuts are so easily broken that it is difficult to ship them in large quantities.

Trees are not usually taken from the nursery under two years, though they will bear transplanting when much older. They are also raised from the seed, many growers preferring to plant the nut where the tree is wanted, thus avoiding the set-back caused by transplanting. Grafting is commonly practised to insure the pure variety, and the grafts are set when the tree is very young. The trees are planted about fifty feet apart each way, and they are kept trimmed for about five feet from the ground to allow cultivation. The young trees are sometimes staked where strong winds are frequent.

The walnut tree begins to bear when six or seven years old, and nothing is known definitely of its age-limit of bearing. Fabulous stories are told of trees in Spain one and two centuries old bearing enormous crops. The oldest trees in California are still bearing, but deductions from the short history already made show that the tree is in its prime from its twenty-fifth to its thirtieth year. Fifteen hundred pounds of nuts to the acre is a good average yield, making seventy-five pounds the average weight from one tree.

Until the orchard is eight or ten years old, so much space is left vacant in the field that the land is utilized in raising other crops. In some sections lima beans are grown; in others, fruit trees of various sorts. The ground is kept carefully worked to conserve moisture, and a weed anywhere in sight is cause for remark.

THE CARPINTERIA VALLEY WALNUT HOUSE.

In the mature tree, the limbs spread out in pleasing regularity and sweep the ground unless kept carefully pruned. The clean white trunks, the rich green of the luxuriant tops, the well-pulverized soil, and the regular intervals all combine to produce one of the most attractive orchards possible.

In a section where scale insects have to be guarded against with eternal vigilance on every hand, it is restful to find a tree for which the coccidæ have no affinity. Very rarely do they attack the walnut. This has freed the grower from a great anxiety, and it is only within the last few years that a single enemy has appeared to check the victorious march of the virtuous walnut. This enemy,—a fungus growth, known from its insidious workings on the young nut as "the blight,"—is attracting the attention of bacteriologists, and vigorous efforts are being made to find remedies to conquer it.

The harvest time begins about the middle of September and lasts nearly six weeks. The nuts begin to fall with the leaves, and the perfect cultivation under the trees leaves no chance for them to lose themselves among clods or weeds. The brown, dead leaves alone hide the nuts. Under normal conditions, they drop free from the outer husk, or hull, through its irregular bursting, and getting the nuts picked up is a simple matter. Sometimes the trees are well irrigated just before harvest time to insure the clean dropping of the nuts. Boys and girls, men and women, Japanese and Chinese, are all pressed into service, and on hands and knees the great orchards are gone over, not once but several times, on account of the irregular ripening of the nuts. The trees are occasionally

WALNUTS SPREAD OUT ON TRAYS TO CURE.

(Nuts are being sacked in rear.)

shaken during the season to loosen the nuts, and before the last gleaning they are "poled" to start the very tardy ones. This is done by long, coarse, bamboo poles, whose light weight makes them easily handled.

In certain rural districts, the public schools close regularly for a "walnut vacation." The help of the children is needed, and the children are nothing loath to replenish their diminished purses. Pails, cans, and gunny-sacks are scattered among the pickers, and when the bags are full they are carried to the drying-grounds, where they are spread out on slat trays to dry. A week, sometimes less, is the usual time for drying, and care is taken to rake the nuts over frequently. A lacy, fibrous lining from the hull often clings to the nut, and must be brushed or washed off. This is usually removed during the drying process, and what is left disappears when the nut is dipped. This is a process for whitening the shell. The natural color is a rich, live brown, but consumers prefer the lifeless, écreu-colored nut because it is cleaner-looking, and the producer willingly satisfies the whim by giving the nuts a quick bath in a solution of

sulphate of lime, sal soda, and sulphuric acid. The stain from the hulls and fresh nuts leaves the pickers' hands a melancholy brown, but misery rejoices in much company in walnut season. The knees suffer from the continual shifting, and various devices are resorted to in the way of mats and knee-padding, but even the best equipped find it hard work. Pickers are paid by the pound, and the average price is half a cent. An adult picker will easily earn from a dollar and a half to two dollars a day, and even children can make good wages.

If there has been scarcity of rain, the nuts are often held firm prisoners, and must be gathered, hulls and all, and put through a huller. One machine for this purpose is a cylindrical apparatus of iron rods with spaces between, and another rod through the center as an axle. A wheel and belt connected with this axle turn the machine by gasoline engine and horse-power, and the nuts are placed inside, and water is kept running through. The rapid motion of the huller, together with the softening influence of the water, loosens the hulls and throws them out through the openings. The clean nuts are

sorted, the imperfect and dwarfed ones are put aside as culls, and the marketable ones roughly sacked and carried to a central walnut house built by the community exchange. Extensive orchardists often handle their own nuts altogether, but the exchange is almost indispensable to the small grower, and is found everywhere. Here they are put through their final paces before they are ready for market. In the Carpinteria Valley, the exchange has built a unique house on a side hill, which receives the nuts at the top of the hill and utilizes gravity to save labor of handling. A secretary receives them from the grower, weighs them, and credits to each his amount.

First, the nuts are graded by means of a one-inch wire mesh set a little slanting. This acts as a sieve, and is kept in constant motion by a gasoline engine. The small nuts drop through and are received upon a revolving belt, which carries them to a bin at one side. The larger ones pass to a dummy-car just below, and from this they drop to a still lower level to the dipper, which is run by the engine. The dipper is a slat cylinder seven feet long by about two and a half feet in diameter, suspended horizontally over a half-cylinder containing the bleaching solution. The cylinder, filled with nuts, is lowered into

the bath, turned in it quickly a few times, and then swung to another bath filled with clear water for the rinsing. The method of bleaching by sulphur fumes has been generally discarded. After the dipping and rinsing the nuts are received into four huge, sloping bins, where they are allowed to stand twenty-four hours to dry.

From the bottoms of these bins there are various small projecting trays, into which the nuts are received by means of slides, and there the final sorting takes place. The broken nuts are thrown into one receptacle, the dark ones into another, and the perfect ones into the sacks for marketing. These sacks hold from one hundred and ten to one hundred and fifteen pounds. A broad stripe of color down the middle marks the variety contained. The practised eye of the sorter makes a quick matter of the sorting, and work goes on without interruption, for the deafening din of the constantly-rolling nuts leaves little opportunity for talking. The bottom of the building has now been reached, and one man has done the work of twelve. Through this exchange alone one hundred and eighty-five tons of nuts were sent out last year, and the total output from southern California was eight hundred and twenty-five car-loads.

HERBERT SPENCER.

BY FRÉDÉRIC J. E. WOODBRIDGE.

(Professor of philosophy in Columbia University.)

THE early life of Herbert Spencer afforded little prospect of the result he was to achieve. He was born in Derby, England, April 27, 1820. He was never physically strong, and his poor health constantly interfered with the very lax and unsystematic education he received. The routine of school work was intolerable to him, lessons were left unlearned, and he was allowed to follow his own inclinations with a freedom which many would naturally regard as disastrous. His father and his uncle, the Rev. Thomas Spencer, the two men who most effectively watched over his intellectual development, appear never to have fretted him with discipline, but rather to have allowed him to run wild in the world of nature and of thought, with a sort of hopeful confidence that direct intimacy with things, and the free exercise of the imagination thus stimulated, would make up for a lack of excellence in the con-

ventional curriculum of a school. He thus grew up without enough learning to enable him to enter college or university. On December 8, 1903, he died at Brighton, and the English papers characterized him as "the last of the great thinkers of the Victorian age."

It is not difficult now to discover in his youth and his apparently desultory education the promise and, in large measure, the causes of his remarkable attainments. The freedom given him by his instructors was the needed spur to his inventive powers and originality. He saw things with his own eyes. He was encouraged to use pencil and speech, that others might have the same vision. What he attained he attained directly, as his own personal possession, without having first to learn what he must afterward discard. The results of such influences became apparent at once when, at the age of seventeen, he took up the work of a civil engineer. The

journals of his profession soon received suggestive contributions from his pen, and the practical difficulties encountered in his work were met with exceptional ingenuity of invention. But interest in mathematics, which had enabled him to secure his appointment as engineer, was only one of his interests. Natural science also, and political and social questions, which the breadth and intelligence of his father and uncle had brought to his eager attention, were subjects for enthusiastic speculation. A few hasty articles on political questions were studiously worked over into his first considerable contribution, "Social Statics," and published in 1850. The book was written as a protest against state interference, but it discovered for Spencer the work of his life. This was to be, not the work of an engineer or of a politician, but of a philosopher, who should see in the whole of nature, in society, in the institutions and thought of man, the unfolding of a single process determined by one comprehensive law. For he saw in the ever-increasing complexity of political life an illustration of a universal process exemplified in the world as a whole.

It was ten years after the first edition of "Social Statics" that a complete programme of the philosophy was publicly announced. Meanwhile Spencer had published several articles and the first edition of the "Principles of Psychology," which was afterward made an important part of his system. Even in this first edition one sees how definitely and rapidly his philosophy was forming. The greater number of his contemporaries and predecessors,—and this is true, almost without exception, of his British contemporaries and predecessors,—had treated psychology as a matter of the fully developed, adult human mind; had tried to analyze this mind into its elements, and to discover the principles of connection which bound these elements together. Spencer emphasized the fact that the individual mind is a product,—indeed, even more, a product of nature,—to be understood only by tracing its life history through numberless generations of individuals, and showing how, out of primitive and simple types of consciousness, the complex types were slowly evolved. This fact has become a commonplace in psychology, but it was decidedly novel in 1855. Its novelty as psychology, however, was even less striking than its novelty as philosophy, for the development of mind was presented as only an illustration of wider and all-embracing evolution.

In March, 1860, Spencer distributed a prospectus of a system of philosophy, which he proposed to publish in periodical parts. One reads the prospectus to-day with much the same as-

tonishment and interest with which it must have been read originally. It proposed an undertaking that many men have dreamed of, but few attempted, and still fewer brought to approximate completion. The system was to set forth the first principles of all knowledge and the laws involved in the highest generalizations disclosed by science; the principles of biology; the principles of psychology; the principles of sociology; the principles of morality. Spencer noted that the plan, to be complete, should contain also the principles of inorganic nature, but excluded such a section because of the great extent of the work as planned, and because the interpretation of organic nature appeared to him to be of preëminent importance. Yet the omission was largely made good by his analysis of ultimate scientific conceptions in the first volume of the system.

Here then, as the sequel showed, was a proposal to identify philosophy with the unification of all knowledge. The individual sciences give us but a partial unification, not the desired or highest goal of intellectual endeavor. Philosophy, as something detached from science, and dealing with facts of a different order, was regarded as an impossibility. But facts of a different order were recognized and emphatically asserted. For, sooner or later thought stops, balked by the indefinable mystery of things and circumvented by the unknowable. Here science finds its limits and religion its aspiration. Here too, in the recognition of an ultimate mystery, science and religion find their reconciliation. But short of this mystery lies the realm of the knowable, where the sciences individually pursue their work, and philosophy unifies the results, finding in them all the principle of evolution, which involves "an integration of matter and concomitant dissipation of motion; during which the matter passes from an indefinite, incoherent homogeneity to a definite, coherent heterogeneity; and during which the retained motion undergoes a parallel transformation." There are few illustrations in history of an attempt so bold and comprehensive. Hobbes had approached it. Descartes and Leibnitz had aimed at it. But one must really go back to Aristotle to find a fitting parallel.

The writing of the "Principles of Psychology" had undermined Spencer's health. The great task he proposed was thus undertaken by a sick man. Then came the long struggle with ill health, the systematic and secluded living, intellectual work kept up by the stimulus of physical exercise between periods of composition, times of complete prostration, when it seemed necessary for him to abandon the plan of his life. Yet volume after volume appeared.

The leading British and American journals found him a frequent contributor. His correspondence became so extensive that he was obliged to decline its obligations. Honors came abundantly from universities he could not have entered as a youth, and membership in the Royal Society might have been attained if he had allowed his name to be presented. But all these were declined. Spencer would be, it seemed, the classic type of philosopher, not only in the comprehensiveness of his system, but also in a studious disregard of everything that savored of the pomp of life. Only an overwhelming demand from the most eminent British scholars obtained from him permission to have his portrait painted as a gift to the nation. The honors he really prized also came to him. His work was recognized not only in every great center of learning throughout the world, but also by the public generally, and enthusiastic admirers greeted him from every quarter. He lived to see his system of philosophy completed in almost every detail which he had planned.

The "Synthetic Philosophy" was a most impressive production. It demanded at once serious consideration, even if it did not win acceptance. It had to be reckoned with by the intelligent reader and the technical student alike. The universe cannot be presented for our consideration as Spencer presented it, and leave us indifferent to the issues involved. These were far reaching indeed, but were summed up in the one word, *evolution*. This was not a new issue for philosophy, but it had never before been presented in such a manner. Familiar facts of life and strange facts, known before only to a few, were massed together as illustrations of the same principle. The commonplace and the extraordinary were exhibited as obeying the same laws. From contemplating the gradual formation of worlds in space and the vast changes in the physical universe, one passed on to note in the trivialities of social custom the same unity of process. And thus one got familiar with the universe, as it were. It had looked so vast, so bewildering, so forbidding, at first, but that one word evolution simplified it, made it intelligible, apparently, and acceptable. Yet the universe did not cease, therefore, to impress and awe the beholder of its transformations, but it impressed him in a new way, and filled him with new emotions. The majesty of its evolution into more and more complex products, and in living things into increasingly fitter adaptation to the conditions of life; the inspiring presence of the same process in the moral world, a process which must eventually make man spontaneously altruistic; the fact that we were in this process taken

up by it to be inevitable ministers to the result, —these things fired the imagination with a genuine enthusiasm.

There was, too, an element of conservatism in the presentation. The philosophy was bound, indeed, to go counter to many cherished beliefs. Creation must give way to evolution. Theology must disappear, because it is impossible to scrutinize the nature of the unknowable. Religious convictions must be recognized as containing only human aspiration and not truth about the unseen world. Yet there is the unknowable, forcing itself upon us with its unutterable mystery, whenever we attempt to pass beyond the merely relative. Religion with all its cherished convictions, and in spite of all its abuses and errors, is a necessary part of the whole evolution, a stage in its progressive unfolding, a genuine uplift in man's upward progress. Its errors are cast off as we attain more perfect adaptation to the conditions of our existence, and we are thus carried to a higher religious type. That soul of goodness in things evil and of truth in things erroneous, which Spencer recognizes in the first sentence of his "First Principles," he never failed to emphasize. Thus the philosophy tended to beget a generous tolerance and an appreciative sympathy. It discountenanced violence and revolution. It advised and urged caution and moderation. Thus, although it destroyed much, its spirit was always conservative, illustrating its own synthetic principle.

The philosophy has been more enthusiastically received by the liberally minded public than by the trained investigators in either philosophy or science. Scientific men adopted a cautious attitude toward it at first, for a man apparently untrained in their special methods had entered their province. In the main they were cordial, for the philosophy would claim science as its foundation, and empirical methods as its method. It recognized, too, the principle of evolution toward which they were tending, anticipated even their grasp of it, and emphasized it so clearly and forcibly that their acceptance of it was hastened and facilitated. It aroused their opposition, it is true, but usually only regarding specific points, seldom regarding the general principle. Thus Weismann could dispute Spencer's claim that characters acquired by the individual are transmitted to posterity.

There has been, too, on the part of scientists a suspicion as to the scientific value of the system. For science is helped little in its concrete advances by a generalization like Spencer's, which was so vague and so lacking in quantitative determinations, that it appeared more as the statement of a general fact than as

a principle of explanation capable of leading to new discoveries. Yet Spencer's services to science were great. He gave it an inspiration and helped to win a wide recognition of its humanistic value. He attracted eager students to its pursuit. So potent was his suggestiveness that investigators in all the departments of science which he touched, and in every part of the cultivated world, have found in him the source of their scientific enthusiasm. Even more than Darwin and Huxley, he is responsible for the wide acceptance by public and specialist alike of the evolutionary point of view. Spencer enjoyed in his life the fullest recognition of these services. The scientific movement of the nineteenth century came to regard him as one of its greatest and most vigorous champions.

The opposition which Spencer encountered was most bitter from philosophers and theologians, and it is significant that this opposition has been directed chiefly against the opening chapters of the volume on "First Principles," containing the doctrine of the unknowable. Here Spencer was least original and least at home. It is one thing to see the different realms of fact obeying a single law, but it is quite a different thing to relate one's contributions to the contributions of history. And Spencer was amazingly ignorant of historical philosophy. He criticised Kant, but without understanding the significance of that acute German. Even his objections to Hamilton and Mansel, with whom he was naturally more familiar, were based largely on misconception. Indeed, there is something very artificial about the whole doctrine of the unknowable. It appears to be dragged in, and one is tempted to conclude that here Spencer borrowed from traditional philosophy, and borrowed in too great ignorance of his sources. It is by far the least convincing part of his philosophy. It is also the least essential part. One questions, therefore, the fairness of attacking it as essentially representing his position. Its utter demolition leaves the philosophy of the knowable still intact, and it is this philosophy for which Spencer stood, and by which he will be remembered. There is little doubt that it will receive permanent recognition among the great systems of historical philosophy.

Yet there is to be recognized a high degree of superficiality in Spencer's attitude toward ultimate questions. Just as science is not notably advanced by the recognition of a fact so general that it does not distinguish, so philosophy is not advanced by a similar method. In spite of evolution, the old problems of metaphysics, of the world's meaning, of the significance of conscious life and of moral struggle, remain. They may

be dismissed as insoluble, but they are not elucidated by the fact that the universe has had an evolution. That characteristic conception of the "Synthetic Philosophy" has already lost much of its charm to still the questioning mind into intellectual rest, or the striving will into happy optimism.

There were also certain defects of method in Spencer's way of working. Much as he prized induction, his inductions were comparatively few, and these few were rapidly made, were brilliant, commanding, suggestive, but not thorough. His formula was imposed on the greater part of the facts with which he dealt; it was not developed from them. Much of his work was outlined in principle before the evidence for the result was in hand. This led to a selection of evidence and consequent inadequacy. We speak of the patient Darwin, but we can hardly speak of the patient Spencer. Darwin's rejection of hypothesis after hypothesis until gradually, from an immense collection of facts, his truth appeared, finds no parallel in the work of Spencer. Huxley was acquainted at first hand with the greater part of the facts on which he built. But Spencer's facts were largely borrowed, and thus carried over into his results any error that lurked in their sources. Such inadequacies were bound to affect his philosophy, and eventually send the student of the philosophy and science of evolution to more thorough investigators.

It is doubtless true, therefore, that the significance of Spencer's work will ultimately be found to reside, not in any great material addition to philosophy or science, but in the fact that he, more than any other man in modern times, made the idea of evolution current and commonplace; that he sought to break down the barriers between philosophy and science, making both deal with a concretely real world, and holding up to men's minds the ideal of a completely unified world and a completely unified system of knowledge.

The publication of his autobiography, prepared a few years before his death, will be eagerly awaited, for those who have known him as an imposing intellectual figure, would gladly know more of the details of his life. His poor health and the necessary husbanding of his resources made him much of a recluse. His dislike of all notoriety has kept back from the public, even in these prying days, all but the most meager accounts of his habits and tastes. But those who have known him intimately speak of his genial and kindly manner and of his generous consideration of others, especially notable during his periods of acute illness.

THE NEW YEAR: PROSPERITY OR DEPRESSION?

I.—THE OUTLOOK FOR STEEL AND IRON.

BY C. KIRCHHOFF.

(Editor of the *Iron Age*.)

SINCE the consolidation of a very considerable number of the great iron and steel plants of the United States into one great corporation, with its very large number of holders of its securities, public interest in the iron industry has grown considerably. Before the organization of the leading consolidation and of a number of minor ones the business community, taught to regard the iron industry as an accurate barometer of trade, watched its fluctuations only casually from that point of view. Many engaged in the industry have always doubted whether that popular conception is justified, since the influences shaping developments in the iron trade are complex and shifting, and sometimes are peculiar to it. The greatest single consuming interest is the railroads, whose spells of adversity and prosperity always are a very powerful factor. Building, in which the modest cottage, in the aggregate, plays nearly as important a part as the modern skyscraper, municipal undertakings, like water and gas plants, shipbuilding, machinery building, the general requirements of the farm,—all these contribute their share as wide channels of consumption. Some of them may be running full to overflowing while others are nearly dry.

THE IRON INDUSTRY AND GENERAL BUSINESS.

As is the case at the present time, the great capitalist may be a poor consumer while the farmer is buying heavily and confidently. The very prosperity of the railroads may be crippling the iron industry, as it did in 1902, and for a time in 1903, through sheer inability to handle the work offered. The old-time axiom, that the condition of the iron industry accurately reflects the general condition of the business of the country must, therefore, be accepted with some reserve.

With a temporary reaction in 1900, the iron industry of the United States had enjoyed years of abounding prosperity from 1898 to the close of 1902, the impetus of the movement carrying it well into the summer of 1903. In order to appreciate the forces at work during the last

year and understand the extraordinary reaction which set in, it is necessary to refer to the developments of 1902, since a forecast of the future depends for what value it possesses upon gauging, so far as is possible, the power and the direction of that movement.

YEARS WHEN PRODUCTION FAILED TO EQUAL THE HOME DEMAND.

The simple fact is, that in 1902 the consumption of iron and steel outran the productive capacity of the country, enormous as it was. No one connected with the trade dreamed in the early days of 1902 that this country, which only a few years since had frightened European producers by appearing as a competitor in their own markets, would import on a very large scale, in the face of the tariff in force. And yet that is what happened. Again, not a voice was raised in the opening days of 1903 to predict that before the year had elapsed our great producers would be scouring foreign markets to secure an outlet for surplus product. Yet to-day that is hailed by some as a panacea for all our ills.

With such recent experiences before them, those connected with iron manufacturing may well be cautious in accepting present surface conditions as a guide for predictions of the future, even though it be not remote. The halt in 1900 was a surprise. A recovery in 1904 seems as little likely.

The past few years have repeated the earlier experiences in extraordinary fluctuations in the consumption of iron and steel in this country. We do not possess figures which accurately measure that consumption,—first of all, because an unknown but greatly fluctuating quantity of old material and scrap is worked over into finished material; and, secondly, because we do not know the weight of all the forms in which iron and steel is imported and exported. The nearest approach to a true picture of the fluctuations in the consumption is furnished by the statistics of pig iron, which lies at the base of the whole structure. An examination of the figures shows the following:

PRODUCTION AND CONSUMPTION OF PIG IRON.

Year.	Production. Gross tons.	Apparent home consumption. Gross tons.
1894.....	6,857,388	6,604,302
1895.....	9,445,308	9,622,368
1896.....	8,622,127	8,276,175
1897.....	9,652,680	9,381,000
1898.....	11,773,934	12,005,058
1899.....	13,620,708	13,660,226
1900.....	13,789,242	13,176,068
1901.....	15,878,354	16,281,829
1902.....	17,821,807	18,439,869
1903.....	18,100,000*	18,050,000+

THE TURN OF THE TIDE.

It will be noticed that since the period of 1895-97, both inclusive, when the average consumption of pig iron was close to 9,000,000 tons per annum, it has doubled, taking the years 1902 and 1903, the rapid growth being checked only once, in 1900. In the first six months of the current year, the record even of 1902 was eclipsed, since the production was 9,707,367 gross tons, the imports 452,451 tons, less an increase in stocks of 76,350 tons. This makes an apparent home consumption during the first half of the year of 10,083,468 gross tons, or at the rate of over 20,000,000 tons per annum. Yet the second half drops back to a rate of about 16,000,000 tons, which indicates clearly the sudden change which has come over the iron industry during the course of the current year. An analysis of the developments during the second half shows even more emphatically what a sudden wrench iron manufacturers were forced to submit to. The production, which had averaged 1,600,000 tons per month during the first half, has declined, in November, 1903, to 1,075,000 tons, and yet stocks of about 400,000 tons accumulated since July 1. It is true that indications point to the fact that consumption is now taking care of current output, and is likely to increase; but there is little prospect that during the winter the rate of consumption will much exceed, if it fully reaches, the rate of 14,000,000 tons per annum unless exports grow much more rapidly, allowance being made for an increase of 2,000,000 tons over the November rate. This shows how futile are the claims that an export trade may compensate for a decline in the consumption of this country from a rate of 20,000,000 tons per annum. The gap is too great to be bridged quickly even with our wonderful recuperative powers. Let it be conceded that the pendulum has swung too far in the direction of curtailed consumption. Let it be conceded that purchasers have almost unanimously withheld

* December estimated.

+ November and December exports and imports estimated.

their requirements, expecting lower prices. Let it be conceded that we are in the midst of the winter season, when outdoor work is largely suspended and consumption, as usual, runs low. Yet we cannot hope in 1904 to secure enough work, domestic or foreign, to resume the rate of 1902 or the first six months of 1903.

The boom is over, and the whole industry must adjust itself to the new conditions. That this is being promptly done in many branches is shown by the happenings of the last few months.

INCREASE IN PRODUCING POWER FOLLOWED BY
DIMINISHED CONSUMPTION.

During the prosperous years there have been enormous additions to productive capacity. That they were needed is proven by the fact that up to the middle of 1903 the additions to old equipment and the new plants plunged into full work as soon as completed. But an additional number, being delayed in their completion, will fall into line during the year 1904.

To some extent, new plants were built with the deliberate purpose to sell them to one of the large consolidations. But, undertaken generally by men thoroughly well versed in the manufacture of iron and steel, they were well designed and usually splendidly equipped.

Other additions to capacity were made in order to secure independence from the modern great aggregations. Mills formerly safe, in depending upon the open market for crude steel, feared that it would be dangerous to purchase steel from consolidations which are their most powerful competitors for the finished product. In some instances, large consuming interests sought relief from possible extortion on the part of the great new companies by building works to make their own finished steel, from the ore in the ground up. The splendid earnings of many independent plants during the days of the boom led the majority to modernize their plants and enlarge their operations.

All this means that from a purely manufacturing point not alone the great consolidations, but also a good many independent producers are in a position to struggle more vigorously for what reduced quantity of work comes upon the markets.

On the other hand, there are many small, poorly located, old-fashioned, and inefficient plants which the boom awakened from long periods of idleness. These must now cease work. To some extent new capacity is always destined to replace old works, stranded in the rush of progress. The effect of additions to capacity is, therefore, usually overrated, because no allow-

ance is made for the virtual abandonment of the "lame ducks."

The great problem before the iron industry is how the adjustment to the new order of things is to be effected. The shrinkage in the consumption is there. There is no hope that we can in 1904 resume the rate of 1902, although the requirements will probably be larger than the present volume of work indicates.

The adjustment has come most violently in that branch of the industry in which the old conditions continue which prevailed before the days of the great mergers, and that is the foundry pig-iron trade. The United States Steel Corporation has little interest or influence in it. In this branch there are so many producers that all efforts at agreements to restrict production by mutual understanding have failed. There are many thousands of consumers, large and small, and a large share of the business is done by merchants and brokers. Southern No. 2 foundry pig iron was quoted nominally at the opening of 1903 at \$18.50, the production for the first half of the year having been virtually sold months before the opening of the new year. Early in December a large tonnage was marketed at \$9.00 per ton, scattering sales having been made as low as \$8.75.

Some of the leading interests in the South had in 1902 followed the policy of the United States Steel Corporation in an attempt to hold down prices in 1902 to \$12.50,—Birmingham, Ala.,—but failed utterly. They made as determined an effort in 1903 to resist the decline to \$9.00, again without success, so that it is very doubtful whether it will be again attempted in that quarter even should the opportunity offer. In this branch of the iron industry natural conditions will, therefore, have full play.

THE ATTEMPT TO STEADY PRICES.

It is different in the steel market, and in the markets for the long and varied list of finished rolled products which the United States Steel Corporation and a limited number of large producers dominate, although they do not control them. A determined effort was made in 1902, and was continued in 1903, by these large interests, bound together in pools, to hold the rise in prices in check and to keep them steady. There can be no doubt that it was partly successful, and that values would have soared far above the importation point in many lines. They did go above that point in some branches, and the smaller mills and the importers were able to secure handsome premiums for quick delivery, which the leading interests were unable to make. There can be no doubt that the great producers

could have secured greater earnings and larger profits had they allowed the markets to take their own course. But it is more than probable that consumption would have been checked earlier through high prices as the principal cause, before the general reaction in financial circles precipitated the shrinkage in requirements.

The iron trade is now watching with keen interest the course being pursued in handling the far more difficult task of checking demoralization. In some branches concessions are being made, in others they are being withheld, special considerations apparently determining the decision in each particular case. In some, the absence of any coöperation on the part of the smaller independent mills seems to threaten a gradual crumbling away of prices, which even predominant producers cannot control on a declining market. In others, where organizations do exist, the yielding is more fitful, but with declining costs, the buyer seems bound ultimately to secure values more tempting to him.

THE EXPORT TRADE.

Relief is being sought by again developing an export business. During the boom leading interests have maintained trade relations with foreign markets by selling abroad in spite of the urgency of the demand at home. This has been notably true in the case of wire products and of pipe and tubes. In other branches, the enormous pressure of the home demand, with its tempting prices, had led to a virtual abandonment of the foreign markets,—a course which offers little danger of difficulty in subsequently renewing relations, since quality is determined by elaborate engineering specifications and price chiefly governs.

So far as the probable volume of export sales is concerned, it is not well to indulge in very sanguine expectations. We are not the only ones who are dumping a surplus, nor are our plants so immeasurably better or our costs so much lower that we have foreign markets at our mercy. Our best works are, generally speaking, far ahead in labor-saving appliances, but we need that advantage to offset our higher wages. On the other hand, we are not as economical of fuel nor as careful of waste as the better works of our competitors. Besides, we must descend to the level of the world's neutral markets, which is considerably lower than our own. This must mean some sacrifice, even if due allowance be made for the fact that cost of manufacture is lowered by being able to keep plants at full employment. The moral effect upon home consumers of export sales at lower prices

than those prevailing at home is another consideration which must be given some weight.

The iron industry is, therefore, facing some very perplexing questions, to which must be added that of lowering cost, to keep pace with shrinking values, with which is intimately coupled the readjustment of the relations with and the remuneration of labor. The price of raw materials, notably fuel, has already given way, and ore may be expected to follow when the time for making new season contracts arrives.

THE QUESTION OF LABOR.

During the past two years, the relations with labor in the iron industry proper have been amicable, although it has keenly suffered, indirectly, by the attitude of labor in cognate branches, among which the building trade was only too conspicuous. This peace has been due partly to the fact that sliding scales, automatic in their action, have prevented any discussion of rates of wages. When they did not regulate them, the manufacturers have almost invariably forestalled any demand for an advance. They were too prosperous, too persistently pushed by their customers, to risk any cessation of work.

At the present time, adjustments of wages are being quite generally made without apparent opposition, and it seems probable that the renewal of sliding scales will be effected without serious friction.

The one grievance from which iron manufacturers most bitterly complain to have suffered is the alarming decline in the efficiency of much of the labor employed during the boom times. It is, of course, to some extent the natural result of a scarcity of labor during the past two years; but even taking that fact into account, the efficiency has been distinctly and, in many instances, alarmingly lowered.

The weeding out of poor men during the past few months has done much to remedy the evil,—not alone directly, but also indirectly,—through the fear of dismissal among the remaining crews. But the feeling is quite general among managers that it will take a considerable time before labor has been restored to its one-time efficiency.

The outlook for the iron trade for the coming year is not, therefore, a very bright one, since, aside from the certainty of a sharply reduced consumption, the leaders of the industry must solve the many perplexing questions which follow in the wake of a boom.

II.—THE PROSPECT FOR RAILWAY EARNINGS.

BY R. W. MARTIN.

JUDGMENT as to the outlook for the railways during the coming year must be based on an unusual array of perplexing factors and cross-currents of influencing circumstances which have developed during the past year. Whatever the outcome of the new period, its history as relating to railway operations is likely to be of the highest moment, involving the working out of new and unsettled problems of traffic, finance, operation, and of administration, bearing on the general welfare of the public as this is affected by the transportation industry, as well as demanding the best abilities of the railway managements.

Not for a dozen years has it been so difficult to forecast the general influence likely to finally govern the railway industry. In each of the last half-dozen years, or ever since the Presidential election of 1896, with its defeat of Bryanism, it has been practically assured that the railways would fully share in the revival of industries and mercantile activities which became so noticeable in the opening days of 1897. In each of the half-dozen years preceding 1897, the continuing problem was how to maintain

the solvency of most of those railway companies still remaining under the control of their owners, when a third of the railway mileage of the country was already operated by the courts through receiverships. In the one period, the railways, as well as other interests whose development required credit facilities, could hardly borrow funds to carry out improvement works. Reorganization plans occupied the activities of financiers, and other capital plans had to wait on the completion of this work of financial rehabilitation. With that accomplished, as it very nearly had been in 1896, and with the course of business given a new impulse of development immediately thereafter, every railway company of any standing, and even those which in ordinary times would have had only a dubious status, had been able up to 1903 to easily finance its capital plans when these comprised betterment or improvement work, or what has been the peculiar development of the period, the issue of securities to buy control of other roads.

The drain on the money market by the seemingly illimitable issue of new capital, largely in

the form of bonds involving fixed interest charges for the purchase of stocks, finally overtaxed the credit structure, and the aid of the money market was suddenly denied to the railroads last summer in most emphatic fashion. The record of the issues of new capital is not available in perfectly satisfactory shape, but the process of capitalizing the development of the railway industry can be traced, in part, from the following statistics, showing for various years, since 1893, the aggregate of new capital listed for dealings on the New York Stock Exchange, and the general purposes of the issues so far as these may be classified :

	Issues for new capital.	Old issues first listed.	Replacing old securities.	Total.
Bonds.				
1893.....	\$120,272,000	\$42,178,000	\$107,353,000	\$268,803,000
1897.....	87,720,000	157,713,000	253,982,000	357,415,000
1901.....	220,172,000	21,270,000	681,658,000	923,010,000
1902.....	197,516,000	2,878,000	333,125,000	533,519,000
6 mos., 1903, to June 30	115,577,000	12,798,000	196,790,000	322,165,000
6 mos., 1903 }	157,261,000	400,000	197,716,000	355,377,000
Stocks.				
1893.....	93,744,000	48,874,000	55,627,000	196,245,000
1897.....	53,276,000	24,370,000	425,323,000	502,975,000
1901.....	429,537,000	76,081,000	1,136,386,000	1,642,014,000
1902.....	251,089,000	11,463,000	521,501,000	784,053,000
6 mos. of 1903...	86,258,000	38,792,000	165,907,000	290,957,000
6 mos. of 1902...	128,094,000	114,462,000	176,296,000	315,854,000

By 1897, the replacing of securities disturbed under reorganization plans had been completed, as is plainly enough told by these figures, and the issue of new securities under new promoting plans had not begun. It was a breathing-spell for the railways and financiers alike. The respite was brief, however. In 1898, the issue of bonds for new capital ran up to \$245,000,000, and \$428,600,000 bonds were issued to replace old securities,—as much as in 1896, when the total was swelled by the replacement of securities under reorganization plans. But by 1901, it will be seen, the total of bonds so issued had risen to \$682,000,000, and a very large share of this represented the taking up of stocks, as in the case of Burlington Railway stock, purchased at \$200 per share by issue of bonds. This overstraining of credit by what in its last most recent phases must be termed a misuse by the railways of the credit facilities so long at their disposal, accentuated the other problems which were already forcing themselves to the front in the railway situation last summer. The sudden reversal of the attitude of the money market toward new railway capital issues then made manifest found many companies with many liabilities for which no permanent capital plan had been prepared, and, taking railway managements by surprise, unsettled their policies. One

immediate effect was that a large number of railways at once ordered the prompt canceling of outstanding contracts for materials and supplies and a heavy curtailment of their development work. This retrenchment on the part of the railways, which had been the most liberal and important purchasers in the iron and steel and other manufacturing markets, was itself largely responsible for the pronounced check in the iron and steel manufacturing industry. This, however, had been previously adversely affected by the cessation of building activities through labor and other troubles in various parts of the country.

In substance, then, the prospect for the railways at the beginning of the new year is that prosperity will be put to a test which it has not experienced since 1896. That check is not likely to be so acute as seemed to be indicated a few months ago, but there is no questioning of the fact that railway traffic is not increasing uninterruptedly, as it was a year ago, and railway finance is not on the solid basis of easy credit which has existed for several years past. This condition, too, it may be emphasized, is in very large part traceable to the excesses in the capital policies of the railways themselves. The beginning of these policies may be placed in 1901, or further back ; but no such radical changes between the outlook and the opening and the close of the year have been effected for a long time past as have been observable in 1903.

The trend of affairs in the railway industry during the coming twelve months will certainly not be so overwhelmingly in one direction as to bring about the uniformly favorable results in the operation of the companies as a whole, which has been the case of late years, almost irrespective of the policies of the various companies or their location as to traffic. Instead of business and financial conditions so favorable that all the railways, whatever their separate characteristics, shared in the substantial prosperity of the country, the new conditions are bound to work out a varied record. The policies of the several managements, and the question of location as related to special traffic, will have a governing effect in fixing the fortunes of the railways under the conditions which must now be faced, to a degree which has not prevailed since the upward turn of revenues began in 1897. Instead of unlimited credit, the strongest railroads have difficulty in financing new loans in a money market whose absorbing power has been taxed to very nearly its limit by an unprecedented issue of new railway capital. Instead of traffic movement overtaking the railway facilities, the tonnage now moving, though still very

large, can be handled without extraordinary efforts to clear the yards and terminals; instead of increasing profits being the striking fact in the railway income statements, the expansion in expenses has become the vital factor for the consideration of railway officers and the investment public; instead of preparation of extensive projects for improvements, plans to develop the economies in operation, expected when betterment policy was outlined, engage the attention of railway managers of large and small railroads alike.

A year ago, the unprecedented traffic congestion on the railways was the significant fact in railway affairs. The president of the Pennsylvania Railroad felt compelled to take the extraordinary course of leaving his administrative duties to take charge personally of the effort to relieve the overcrowding of the terminals and tracks of the company,—a task which had been too much for his subordinate officers. To accomplish this work, he had to adopt the still more extraordinary policy of refusing to accept freight for shipment for about a week, until stalled freight cars, extending along miles of the several divisions around Pittsburg, could be moved and unloaded. At that time, iron and steel production was at the highest point then reached, the output only limited by the inability to secure the transportation facilities for coke and other materials into furnaces and for the shipment of the finished product. Now, steel and iron production is being limited because of lack of consuming power, and furnaces and coke ovens, which a year ago were closing because they could not get the railways to carry their products, now have no use for the equipment which the railways are able to supply in quantity. But the reduction in coal and iron and steel tonnage, classes of tonnage which, together, have furnished the larger part of the increased tonnage of the railways since 1896 (an expansion which has about doubled the freight traffic of the railways in the last six years), has not been reflected in anything like the same degree in other classes of business. General manufacturing output and merchandise movement continue large, and the marketing of the crops yields larger shipments than a year ago. The general outlook for the railways continues favorable, for the most part, from the traffic standpoint. Receipts promise to increase through the next year, and at least the high level of revenues reached in the past year should be maintained. The questions at issue concern the relative profits of railway business; the abnormal growth of operating expenses; the problem of raising new capital in an unwilling money market, and the justification of the lavish expendi-

ture for improvements made in the last few years, by working out pronounced economies in the operating expenses directly related to the transportation of freight and passengers,—economies which were noticeably lacking in the statistics of the large railway companies in the last fiscal year.

The financial aspect of the railway problem is the fundamental one in the existing situation, and it is the one where the most decided check to the long unbroken prosperity of the railways has come. The pregnant fact in the outlook for this industry at the present time,—the special legacy of 1903,—is that companies of the highest credit find it difficult to finance plans to supply new capital; they are unable to dispose of their stock at premiums to their own shareholders, following the comfortable practice (for railway managements) in recent years; it is impracticable to sell bonds in many instances, and at best only in limited measure and at prices far less advantageous than the railways have learned to expect in the last few years of easy credit extended in practically unlimited volume. This curtailment of the credit of the money market thus becomes the emphatic and troublesome fact with which the railways have to deal in the coming year. It marks the close of the era which began in 1897, when the Lake Shore & Michigan Southern Railway Company announced that it had arranged to pay off its maturing 7 per cent. bonds by an issue of \$50,000,000 3½ per cent. bonds, which immediately commanded a premium of three and four points in the open market, and advanced within a few years to a premium of ten and eleven points. The whole field of railway finance, from conservative and legitimate operations to reckless promotion, has been traversed between that period and the present year, when the Lake Shore Company, instead of borrowing at 3½ per cent. interest, has been compelled to pay 5½ per cent. and 6 per cent. on its borrowings. It is a sign of the times, too, that, whereas the earlier operation was of the most legitimate and conservative character, working out a large saving for the stockholders in interest charges, the later operations, on which the money market has demanded its high toll, have represented the needs of the company to finance purchases of stock acquired at very high prices for control of the Reading Company. This property was reorganized only in 1896. While the Lake Shore has no direct physical connection with this property, it has incurred a liability of upward of \$25,000,000 in order to take over a half interest in its control.

With a company of the standing of the Lake Shore, the very epitome of American railway

conservatism, wealth, and solidity, paying these rates for money, other railways, which had gone ahead with work of an extensive character of one kind or another involving heavy liabilities for which no permanent provision had been made (the directors relying upon being able to secure funds at their convenience as easily as in previous years), made haste to effect loans to meet their pressing liabilities until they could dispose of bonds or make other permanent arrangements. This borrowing from the money market assumed very large proportions, and is still a factor which has to be dealt with at the end of the year. The Burlington Company, for instance, borrowed last summer about \$5,000,000 on seven and one-half months' notes, paying 5 per cent. interest; the Union Pacific borrowed \$10,000,000 on one and one-half year notes, and paid 6 per cent. for the accommodation. The Great Northern Company went to London for upward of \$5,000,000 of capital, which could not be secured by the sale of bonds on satisfactory terms; and in the closing days of the year the Terminal Railroad Association of St. Louis, which earlier in the year had made an issue of \$18,000,000 bonds for new construction, improvements, and additions, has been compelled to borrow an additional \$4,500,000 for further improvement works. The Lake Shore Company, which, in January last, borrowed \$25,000,000 from the money market at about 5½ per cent., and larger sums later on, is proposing to issue a like amount of debenture notes to meet its maturing liabilities.

These railway borrowings seriously and adversely affected sentiment last summer. Now, however, a more favorable and a more reasonable view as to the position of the railways in relation to this question of financial requirements and of railway money supply is generally taken. Railway officers who so hastily ordered the abrupt stoppage of development work, canceling orders for materials and a reduction of working forces during the summer, have come to consider their action in this respect as hardly warranted by the real facts, and as induced by an over-apprehensive feeling created by the unusual and abrupt rebuff from the money market to calls for fresh capital funds. In fact, railway observers consider that traffic will continue to hold up at about its present high level, although the extreme and prolonged traffic congestion which has been experienced at recurring periods for several years past is probably over until a new period of industrial development arrives. We have come to a halting-place in the expansion of mercantile development. There may be some evidence of retrograde movement, but

this is likely to be limited only to what may be regarded as a natural ebb after an onward movement which has been prolonged beyond its normal length, and has carried manufacturing capacity and output upward to an unprecedented degree. But the very cessation of the unusual growth experienced in the last few years will itself cause considerable readjustment of business affairs, and particularly among the railways where the development proceeds along certain limited and definable paths.

There is no reason to expect that this anticipated diminution of traffic will extend beyond a natural reaction. A slackening in the traffic movement might, indeed, be regarded as a not unmixed evil, on the ground that abnormal conditions are disarranging and will lead to uneconomic conditions. This factor exists in any business, but has special force in the railway service. The Pennsylvania, for instance, is to-day moving its reduced volume of freight, as compared with that of a year ago, with much greater relative economy and with better results for its shippers than was the case last January, when it was struggling with traffic congestion. Railway managers welcome a reasonable let-up in the pressure of freight. The railways continue busy, though without the feverish activity that existed in December and January last. The extreme pressure of that period had many drawbacks from the standpoint of the railways. It meant an overtaxing of men and machinery, which was, in some respects, nearly disastrous. One company, for instance, which increased its traffic by 10 per cent. in 1903, had to pay in settlement of damages and claims on account of wrecks upward of \$1,500,000, a sum equal to half its dividend disbursements. Another company's expenses under this head amounted to over \$1,000,000, and the list might be indefinitely extended. These heavy payments were in large part the outcome of the exceptional strain on men and machinery through the enormous increase in the volume of traffic. A more normal movement will afford opportunity for a general overhauling for repairs. Despite the lavish expenditures for improvements in the last few years, the railways have been doing a business in excess of their facilities, and in 1903 their operations showed that this larger volume of traffic was not bringing in any proportionate increase in the profits.

This was clearly apparent, not only in the current monthly statements as published by the railways during the year, but even more strikingly in the details of their operating statistics, as shown in their annual reports for the fiscal year ending June 30 last. It will be sufficient

to set forth here the changes in earnings as they are available. If the Interstate Commerce Commission figures for the fiscal year to June 30 last are accepted, railway gross earnings per mile in that year were \$9,382, and operating expenses \$6,197. These increases over the 1902 figures were, respectively, of \$757 in gross revenues, and of \$620 in operating expenses, while in net earnings the gain was \$169. But in the previous year, with a gain of \$638 in gross per mile, or \$119 less than reported for last year,

the expansion in expenses was only \$392, or \$228 less than in the past year; and the gain of \$246 in net earnings per mile then reported was \$77 per mile more than obtained in 1903, with its higher reported gain in net receipts. This tendency in expenses to unduly expand can be further studied in the following table of gross and net earnings of a group of railroads in 1903, and the gains in net and gross receipts in that year and as reported for the same roads in the preceding year:

	Gross earnings in 1903.	Net earnings in 1903.	Increase in gross in 1903.	Increase in net in 1903.	Increase in gross in 1902.	Increase in net in 1902.
Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe.....	\$21,913,287	\$3,215,312	\$3,215,312	*\$1,312,530	\$4,080,283	\$3,012,940
Baltimore & Ohio Railroad.....	23,379,670	5,557,136	5,557,136	2,994,159	4,083,630	2,221,297
Canadian Pacific Railway Company.....	15,536,846	6,454,319	6,454,319	1,750,933	6,647,850	1,976,537
Chesapeake & Ohio.....	5,658,679	467,007	467,007	1,152,837	380,225	289,167
Chicago & Alton Railway Company.....	2,445,097	244,077	244,077	189,084	81,884	1,581,576
Chicago Great Western Railway.....	2,184,984	124,434	124,434	536,827	769,280	713,230
Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul.....	16,084,553	648,334	648,334	3,244,112	20,846	4,178,126
Chicago & Northwestern.....	16,582,608	*63,811	*63,811	3,548,534	1,748,022	2,900,017
Cleveland, Cincinnati, Chicago & St. Louis.....	4,721,331	*250,820	*250,820	838,562	1,022,065	895,484
Erie Railroad.....	15,904,656	2,937,320	2,937,320	1,792,131	2,022,506	480,800
Great Northern Railway Company.....	20,708,818	2,405,726	2,405,726	7,081,566	5,735,823	20,846
Illinois Central Railroad.....	13,486,121	681,431	681,431	3,920,570	1,748,022	2,900,017
Louisville & Nashville Railroad.....	11,478,565	1,008,748	1,008,748	2,000,050	20,846	4,178,126
Northern Pacific Railway Company.....	22,110,012	2,011,046	2,011,046	8,895,306	4,178,126	2,900,017
Norfolk & Western.....	8,483,245	1,047,206	1,047,206	1,373,126	1,022,065	895,484
Seaboard Air Line Railway.....	3,715,832	*22,846	*22,846	642,199	713,230	2,900,017
Southern Railway Company.....	11,384,220	498,509	498,509	3,051,706	548,554	234,080
St. Louis & San Francisco.....	8,412,534	285,122	285,122	2,206,604	234,080	403,637
Union Pacific Railroad.....	22,327,073	395,980	395,980	3,992,068	2,900,017	403,637
Wabash Railroad.....	5,325,167	118,109	118,109	1,498,028	403,637	895,484
New York Central & Hudson River.....	24,146,494	105,085	105,085	4,570,757	295,484	480,800
Kansas City Southern Railway Company.....	1,651,649	*183,095	*183,095	697,805	480,800	

* Decrease.

The proportionate lessening railway profits in 1903 is sufficiently indicated in the above figures. The comparison may be carried further by show-

ing the changes in gross and net earnings in the first six months of 1903 and 1902, as appended in the table below:

	1903 Increase in gross, 6 months.	1903 Increase in net, 6 months.	1902 Increase in gross, 6 months.	1902 Increase in net, 6 months.
Pennsylvania Railroad.....	\$9,950,900	\$345,700	\$8,274,400	\$2,635,100
New York Central.....	5,592,102	3,634,053	1,068,553	*111,422
Erie.....	4,171,175	1,948,078	*198,475	790,830
Canadian Pacific.....	3,836,965	1,185,588	8,038,343	325,325
Baltimore & Ohio.....	3,301,149	2,224,271	1,500,698	472,864
Illinois Central.....	2,943,080	851,584	1,742,241	*763,274
Missouri Pacific.....	2,915,230	1,180,506	480,300	326,411
Lake Shore & Michigan Southern.....	2,768,742	*454,778	563,921	*320,602
Louisville & Nashville.....	2,420,352	702,918	1,375,439	681,431
Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe.....	2,398,514	*708,110	742,621	681,431
Norfolk & Western.....	2,241,954	727,242	927,698	647,223
Southern Railway.....	2,178,577	240,145	1,135,301	112,368
Union Pacific System.....	1,994,236	732,113	1,895,287	1,185,080
St. Louis & San Francisco (C. & E. I.).....	1,932,848	833,314	1,079,237	*316,305
Central of New Jersey.....	1,884,933	987,740	*987,740	*943,798
Cleveland, Cincinnati, Chicago & St. Louis.....	1,414,185	107,064	108,527	*189,417
Boston & Maine.....	1,394,423	585,169	585,169	140,647
Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul.....	1,257,894	133,044	1,251,116	347,780
Wabash.....	1,164,298	638,085	638,085	*1,165,425
Southern Pacific System.....	1,127,257	*664,298	1,291,343	*305,732
New York, Ontario & Western.....	1,119,350	643,070	*407,330	267,916
Chesapeake & Ohio.....	1,077,075	348,266	630,156	681,431
Atlantic Coast Line.....	848,184	578,245	501,051	681,431
Duluth, Missabe & Northern.....	190,598	11,328	628,849	571,671

* Decrease.

For the six months from January 1 to June 30 last, the increase in gross earnings of railways reporting their revenues, for the period,

was \$90,200,000, or 14 per cent., but the increase in expenses was 16 per cent., reducing the gain in net earnings to \$19,800,000, or 10

per cent. But these figures include the returns of the anthracite coal carrying companies, which had exceptionally large gains. Eliminating the figures of this group, the remaining railways show an increase for the half year of \$77,600,000 in gross, and of only \$10,860,000 in net, earnings.

Will 1904, with a possible loss in traffic, change the character of railway reports and perhaps bring about decreases in revenues? The question is an open one, but there are certain reasons for believing that, even though traffic holds only the 1903 level, or recedes, the railways can keep up their net profits.

More recent statements of earnings show, in even larger degree, the progress of this undue expansion in expenses. For October, the railways whose statements are available, show an increase of \$7,500,000 in gross earnings, but a gain of only \$680,000 in net receipts. These figures exclude the returns of the anthracite coal companies whose reports compare with the period of the anthracite coal miners' strike a year ago and, therefore, do not afford a fair basis of comparison as to the changes affecting railway operations in general. These higher operating costs in the 1903 fiscal year, as well as for later months, have been due to the higher prices of fuel, which is the largest single item of expenditure on most railways; to the increased prices of other materials and supplies; higher prices paid to nearly all classes of employees; excessive damage claims, in very large part due to the overstrained condition of men and machinery; to traffic congestion, which has involved extraordinary expense and uneconomical operation, and to lessened labor efficiency despite the higher wages paid.

The question arises, what will be the course of railway profits when traffic and revenues fall off, if the level of profits is maintained so differently with revenues showing enhancement? Will the position of conservative investors be jeopardized? Will the holders of securities have to face anything like the trying experiences of the early nineties, when such heavy sacrifices of capital had to be made? To all this it may be alleged that the position of the railways generally, both as to financial resources and physical condition, which signifies economical operation under normal conditions, was never so strong as at the present time, and that the railways will be able to pass through a far more serious curtailment of revenue and traffic than seems likely from any signs now observable, without serious impairment of their capital obligations. The earning power which has been developed by most of the rail-

ways is ample, where it has been fortified by the appropriations for improvement and betterment work out of the large surplus earnings of the last few years of prosperity, to continue present interest and dividend payments. The railways entered the disastrous period which began about 1893 with capital obligations heavily enlarged by construction of an immense mileage of new lines largely along competitive through routes across undeveloped territory, which had absorbed all their available resources, and had left nothing toward the improvement of the old portions of their property. In one year alone,—in 1897,—upward of 13,000 miles of railway were built in this country; in the five years from 1896 to 1899, more than 38,000 miles of new railway were built,—an increase of about 30 per cent. in mileage, although the gain in the number of tons carried per mile of road in this period was hardly 12 per cent. The increase in the capital stock outstanding was about \$640,000,000, or about 16 per cent.; and in outstanding funded debt about \$1,319,000,000, or very nearly 30 per cent. Between 1897 and 1902, the outstanding funded capital stock has increased by about \$470,000,000, or about 8 per cent.; and outstanding funded debt by about \$904,000,000, or 16 per cent.; while the increase in freight movement had been 60 per cent., and in the passenger movement about 66 per cent.

A large proportion of the increase in funded debt in the later period was brought about in 1902, and too much of it consisted in the conversion of stock liabilities into fixed interest-bearing debt. It was the excess of this tendency which brought about the changes in railway finance in 1903. But railway development has been so substantial since 1897, and so much of the new railway capital which has been raised, supplemented by appropriation of current revenues, has been utilized in the improvement of the properties and supplying additional transportation facilities, rather than in the construction of new mileage, that the railway position is most sound, and on a very different basis from any that has prevailed at any former period of falling traffic. There has been too much railway financing in the last year or two, but the working of inexorable conditions has now minimized the influence of this exploitation of financiers, and the beginning of the new year finds the practical railway-operating managers in influence and control, rather than the banker. They may be relied on to develop the earning capacity of the properties in their charge, and to increase and preserve the equity of the owners; and new issues of capital will be more limited than of late. The promise is that the causes

which have increased expenses in 1903 will be gradually adjusted in the coming year, and that at its close it will be found that railway profits have been, at least, maintained at as high a level

as of late, by the working out of economies in transportation service to a degree which it has not been possible under the abnormal conditions of the past year.

III.—GOOD CROPS AND GOOD TIMES IN THE WEST.

BY CHARLES MOREAU HARGER.

ONE day during the past autumn, a dweller on the prairies drew from the country bank a little nest-egg of two hundred dollars that had been there for half a decade.

"I'm going to stay," he remarked to the cashier. "That money has been saved until we were sure that the West suited us. It does. When I left Pennsylvania I determined to put aside enough to take us back any time in ten years. We don't want to go back now."

It was a typical sentiment, the outcome of trial, and it has been expressed in similar terms by multitudes who have sought prosperity—and found it.

In the recent history of the vast granary of the nation—the West—one fact stands out vividly: the day of speculation and experiment has passed away; substantial business progress, based on plans of permanency, has succeeded it. This great underlying feature of the plains region, which means so much for any section, is potent with promise. It meant a great deal when the Western people ceased talking about going "back East" and began to invite their Eastern friends to visit them. It was all the difference between the nomad and the landlord.

Beginning with 1897, the West has harvested the full biblical measure of richness. The past autumn has been the test of the substance of its prosperity. The trial proved how solid are the foundations of its financial strength, and how independent it is of the fluctuations affecting more speculative sections.

"What do the bankers of the small towns think of the Eastern financial flurry?" was asked of the owner and manager of a country bank two hundred miles west of the Missouri River.

"They don't think," was the quick reply. "They have little interest in the matter. They do not own any of the watered stocks, and are not influenced by the depreciation in values. The country banker of the West is the most independent person on earth at the present time."

This is a representative instance. The bankers of the smaller towns of the West have watched the market surprises of the East as interested onlookers. In larger towns and in cities, where the sympathy with other money

centers is strong, a greater concern has prevailed,—there the bankers read the papers eagerly and curtailed their loans when news came of trust company embarrassments.

Out of the seven good years have come to the West two things,—notable financial power, and, frequently, an extreme estimate of the position in which it is thus placed.

The first is unquestionable. It is real, positive, tangible. The bank deposits, the canceled mortgages, the new investments, prove it. At the beginning of the period, mortgage foreclosures were on every district-court docket west of the Missouri River; now there are few counties that have had a foreclosure in two years. A Chicago investor, representing a large corporation, remarked the other day: "I have placed six million dollars through agents in the Dakotas and Nebraska and have not lost a dollar."

Seven years ago, the safety line for loans in Kansas was the Sixth principal meridian, which runs through the east-central portion. This year, of the thirty-five counties that produced one million or more bushels of wheat each, only two lie wholly east of that line; two others have a third of their territory on the sunrise side,—the remainder of the wheat belt extends westward, some of it within one county of the Colorado border. In counties of that territory over four hundred and fifty bushels for every person was produced.

These things of themselves count for prosperity, and the visible manifestation has been interesting. Seven years ago, banks were chiefly at the county seats and large towns. Now scarcely a town of four hundred people exists in the West where there is not a bank. In the county seats where were two banks with small deposits now are four or five, each with more deposits than both the old institutions combined could show. While the number of banks has practically doubled, the deposits last September reached their high-water mark, the surplus and undivided profits likewise showing a most flattering condition. The Western bank that pays less than 15 per cent. dividends is the exception.

The reduction of indebtedness has come along with the other signs of prosperity. Every mort-

gage has written in it an agreement on the part of the mortgagee that he will accept part or all of the principal in multiples of \$100 at the time of any interest payment,—it must have that or the loan cannot be made.

"That man dislikes me," remarked a North Dakota farmer of a leading citizen the other day. "I borrowed three thousand dollars of him for five years and paid it off in two,—he has been cross ever since."

In 1896, a Chicago investment journal said: "We have come in contact with a gentleman who is trying to sell county bonds—6 per cent. gold bonds—in a prosperous county. He has learned that he might as well try to sell stock in an irrigating scheme on the planet Mars as to dispose of securities that carry on their face the name of Kansas." Within four years over \$5,000,000 of such Kansas bonds had been refunded at from 4 to 4½ per cent., and a dozen bond houses had agents scouring the State for more. Practically every bond issued in boom times in Nebraska and Kansas, capable of refunding, has been reissued at a saving of from 2 to 3 per cent.

All this does not mean that there is no more indebtedness in the West. New generations are coming on the stage; new enterprises are being developed; new territory is being opened through the adaptation of new farming methods to the existing conditions. It all takes money,—but the fact that the West can meet its obligations whenever they become due, lends buoyancy to its undertakings. It is, too, building up a Western loan fund that is having an effect on interest rates and brings the people into closer relations. Time was when the man wishing to borrow a few hundred dollars was forced to make application through an agent, have his application sent East and wait until there was approval by some Eastern capitalist. Now the chances are that his neighbor can help him out; or, if not directly, the local bank or loan agent can bring him in touch with the man who has money to invest and who will take the loan. In other words, the West is building up a loan fund of its own that is capable of filling a large place in its financial economy, and which at times overflows the local demand.

This does not mean that the West is independent of the East, or that it is not using millions of Eastern money. The farm mortgages are numerous and always will be, for new homes are ever being established, and new generations are seeking to extend their operations. The large life insurance companies are, however, through their loan departments, doing the greater part of this business. They have

learned that, rightly placed, the Western farm loan is one of the safest of depositories for trust funds. Eastern capital is developing the oil, gas, coal, and mining fields. Only the bigoted and narrow-minded see reason for separation between East and West, even though the West is now in a situation where the flurries of the Eastern stock markets affect it less than in the previous decade.

A merchant came into the office of a Western country paper and asked to see the New York dailies.

"What do you want them for?" inquired the editor, curious to know the motive for the close scanning of the pages.

"I want to see how things are coming on at that end. Let me tell you one thing: we have got to run this country right at both ends if we want to win."

That is the sentiment of the well-informed Westerner after having come in touch with real prosperity himself. When he was in hard straits he thought the men of wealth did nothing but live at ease,—and he howled for the destruction of the "money power" and indulged in strange and weird kinds of politics; now he has money of his own, and finds that he has to work about as hard to keep it as he did to earn it. He appreciates the obligations of being a capitalist, and is cautious about tinkering with the currency.

The presence of local funds in the West not only permits of more economical management of agricultural and manufacturing enterprises, but it is being used for the development of the newer regions of Texas, Colorado, Wyoming, Montana, Idaho, and the Pacific Northwest. Oklahoma has 600,000 people,—half of them have moved there in the past five years. Southern papers tell of 75,000 Northern farmers settled between New Orleans and Corpus Christi in that time, taking up 3,000,000 acres of farm land, of which 80,000 is raising rice at good profits. Homeseekers' excursions of from 500 to 1,000 people going to the Southwest are not uncommon. It is estimated that Washington has gained 450,000 in population in two years. Idaho and Montana have had large immigration, and their prosperity, including the per capita of their bank deposits, is marvelous.

During the middle nineties immigration practically ceased. Then it was slowly resumed, rising three years ago into a steady tide that has taken half a million people annually across the Mississippi and into the Northwest,—the best class of settlers, families that traveled on first-class tickets and ate in dining cars. They have poured in a ceaseless stream through the St. Paul, Omaha, and Kansas City gateways. They

have bought out thousands of partly or fully improved farms and have added to the wealth of communities. Practically, every acre of land in the middle West has doubled in value since 1898.

What has become of those who sold out? Moved on to yet newer homes. They have settled Oklahoma, divided the great ranches of the Texas Panhandle into smaller holdings, occupied the irrigated valleys of Colorado, developed the Dakotas, and pushed over the mountains to the rich acres of the Pacific Northwest. It is an unending procession of homeseekers, and it continues to-day with as regular a movement as it possessed three years ago. It is one of the great factors in the West's later development.

That these conditions of approximate financial independence have in some instances fostered an exaggerated estimate of the West's business position is manifest from the most cursory reading of the newspapers of prairie towns. They overflow with what might be called a "Western jingoism" that demonstrates the enthusiastic loyalty of the editors to their communities' interests, but at times proceeds upon a theory that would not stand the test of close analysis. It is very commendable to declare that "the West asks no odds of the East," and "we hope all the Eastern corporations will go to smash—the West doesn't care;" but with these things coming to pass there would be small market for the abundant production of the Western farm and ranch.

The publication, last summer, of advertisements offering "commercial paper" to farmers was heralded as a great tribute to the West's financial supremacy! Probably not a farmer ever bought a dollar's worth,—and very few banks have done so since midsummer. The West was quick to see the necessity of retrenchment and caution. Get-rich-quick plans did not appeal to the Western investor. As Western people travel more, as they go back East and see in every little town some manufacturing enterprise giving employment to the laborers and creating wealth for the community, they bring broader views into the West, and there is passing away the old-time idea of producing raw material only. The manufacturing era is to be next on the Western stage, and its coming will mean a better realization of the ideal financial independence than the production of bumper crops, seven in a series, can possibly accomplish.

The West closes the year in a waiting attitude. It has had an unique season. It raised wheat, but the railroads have been unable to furnish cars to get it to market until midwinter. It raised corn, but the cattle market has been so demoralized by various causes,—the farmers say

the packers' combine is most to blame,—that there is little encouragement for heavy investment in this usual form of money-making. The mills have had long delays in obtaining grain and longer waits in getting flour to Eastern markets, tying up their money at both ends, and thus requiring larger capital for transactions than ever before. This was also true of most forms of manufacturing, and the West has had larger capital working than ordinary conditions would demand. The year ends with bank deposits decreased, compared with autumn, in the accounts of both industrial and farming classes, with loans expanded and brisk demand for capital. Investments in land have called for liberal portions of the farmers' savings, and the upward flow of income has encouraged generous expenditures in other things, which account for additional amounts.

Ten years ago, when there came a financial crisis, the West owed millions to the East that it could not pay. The East needed the money and demanded its own. Now the West owes less to the East and, such as it is, the East does not ask it, because, under the present conditions in the West, these investments are better than those made in the East.

For five months the West has been gathering its energies. It has been conserving its possessions,—not because anything had happened to it, but in order that nothing might happen. This was sense. Had it done so fifteen years ago, it would be farther ahead to-day. It is not because it has rural delivery, telephones, and consolidated schools that it has done this,—they and other attendants of modern farm life are but incidents, the outgrowth of experience in farming, of adaptation of crops to climate, of development of irrigation and consequent conquering of new territory. Plenty of money has been available for carrying on its established affairs,—but it was chary of speculative, new ventures.

In other words, the West's financial interests have become conservative, and they will continue so until there is a certainty of the national business revival to which it confidently looks forward. It believes that with substantial prosperity from Indiana to California, and from North Dakota to the Rio Grande, there must be such basis for business activity as cannot help influencing for good the entire country. It realizes that it has much to learn. Not all its bankers are trained financiers,—but they do not propose to make any mistakes by overreaching their credit. This sentiment, this influence, exerted over so vast and productive a territory, means confidence and future good times. The coming six months will be marked by caution,

but they will see no diminution in the West's steady progress as exemplified in its improvement and development of present possessions.

Such are some of the West's financial conditions to-day. Wider knowledge of possibilities, firmer grasp of opportunities and richer resources, mark it than at any time in its history. Long ago, it passed the stage where its margin of advantage was small; its head is well above water and its stroke firm and confident. It is

not an empire by itself, nor do those who are most influential in its management consider it so. Their sympathy with the East and South is comprehensive, and they recognize the interdependence of all sections to a greater degree than ever.

The West has broadened, expanded, and matured with the past seven years,—it is to be reckoned with as a financial equal of the older portions of the nation, but not as an antagonist.

IV.—THE PROMISE OF 1904 FOR TRADE IN GENERAL.

BY F. W. HAWTHORNE.

IT does not require a deep digging into the lowest strata of the present industrial and trade situation, an exhaustive search for the heart of it, to discover signs that it holds out a discouraging prospect for a realization of the hopes of our financial and commercial pessimists. If a consensus of intelligent observation could be had, as the old year comes to its close, there would almost unquestionably be a quite general agreement that in the past year and a half or more this country has been passing through—and is still engaged in—a sort of balancing process, a wholly unpremeditated effort, of course, but nevertheless a plainly discernible one, to learn exactly where it is "at." The process is not unaccompanied with some slight shocks and surprises here and there, but these appear not only to be steadily decreasing in number, but also to be losing whatever of violence or intensity they may have possessed. We are gradually, but surely, finding our financial and industrial level, and the chances just at present seem to be increasingly against the recurrence of anything like a crisis within at least a decade and a half from that of 1893. The signs point rather to a continuance of the steadygoing process, with no marked trend either to increased prosperity or to depression.

The reasons? They are not far to seek. To begin with, the present period, immediately succeeding the most remarkable expansion in industry and trade that the world has ever witnessed, is in most of its aspects wholly unlike any other following a previous period of prosperity in our national history of more than a century and a quarter. A close study of the situation discloses only a very few, comparatively, of the conditions that traditionally betoken a commercial slump, or even a gradual sagging off, from the high levels of business prosperity.

There have been six distinctly marked periods of depression here in the United States,—those which reached their climaxes approximately in 1814, 1819, 1837, 1857, 1873, and 1893; a disturbance not quite so marked or of so long duration occurred in 1884, but it hardly attained the dimensions of what is known in our financial parlance as a "panic;" still, persons who recall acutely the incidents following the Grant & Ward failure in New York City may be inclined to class that period with the other six. It would obviously be unprofitable in these enlightened times to consider seriously the theories that have come down to us regarding the periodicity of hard times. Two centuries and a half ago,—it may, however, be permissible to note,—Sir William Petty wrote: "The medium of seven years, or rather of so many years as make up the cycle within which Dearth and Plenties make their revolution, doth give the ordinary rent of the land in Corn." John Stuart Mill has set the recurrence of panics at periods approximately ten years apart, the intervening three-year stretches being designated consecutively as the "post-panic" period, the "middle" or revival period, and then the "speculative" period. And in our own day, also, Professor Jevons has argued interestingly, if not convincingly, as to the influence of sun-spots on harvests primarily, and so indirectly on industrial and trade conditions. There are not wanting among thoughtful persons to-day those who hold to the hallucination of the ten-year periodicity of panics, and the pessimists who predict a crisis as "about due" we have always with us. Unquestionably, not a few intelligent business men halfway expect "hard times" in the very near future for no better reason than that it appears to be about time for them to come around again. They have no substantial grounds for any such belief or anticipation, however.

NO EUROPEAN LOANS TO BE CALLED.

Apart from the rather abnormally healthful and stable conditions incident to bountiful crops of cereals, to activity in the iron and steel trade, and to a remarkable sustentation of railroad earnings,—“abnormal,” in the sense that conditions like these are not ordinarily looked for in periods closely following the top-levels of trade expansion and great prosperity,—there are other features in the present situation that forcibly discredit the forecasts of the alarmists, some of a positive, others of a negative nature. At the outset, let us note one of the most strikingly significant of the latter:

For half a century or more, the period just preceding every panic,—the advent of “dull times” in this country,—has been marked by the calling in of European loans previously placed here. That was the case in 1857 and in 1873, and most distinctively so in 1893. The outward movement of gold at that time, representing the withdrawal of foreign investments from the United States, began as early as 1891. It was intensified far beyond its volume in previous crises from various causes, chiefly a widespread apprehension abroad that this nation was preparing to put its monetary system on the silver standard. In 1903, that danger-signal was not in evidence. It cannot be put out, because we have so generally paid up all of our indebtedness abroad that practically nothing remains to-day in the nature of loans for the Europeans to call. The “boot is on the other leg” now. Europe is actually exporting gold to the United States in large volume,—not in the form of investments or loans (as just prior to the crisis of 1837, when the Bank of the United States alone borrowed \$20,000,000), but in payment of her debts to us. Happily, too, our monetary system is on so substantial a basis that, even were we heavily indebted to the United Kingdom and the Continent to-day, there would undoubtedly be no disposition there to force the payment of the coin. While this feature of the situation, as already indicated, is a negative one, it is still one of the most inspiring of all when analytically considered.

SIGNIFICANT CHANGE OF A DECADE.

In this connection, it is important to recall that in the year 1902 foreign loans in this country, together with our commitments to Europe in other directions, reached an aggregate indebtedness approximating \$500,000,000; that all this has now been discharged, practically “wiped out,” except in merely nominal amounts that never disappear wholly from the reckoning;

and that in the closing month of 1903 the United States was importing gold at the average rate of about \$7,000,000 a week. In 1892, the year just preceding the last “panic,” our gold imports and exports both approximated very closely to \$50,000,000, the excess of exports over imports being only \$298,000; but by June 30, 1893,—so great had become the drain on us from Europe,—we had imported only about \$22,000,000, while the export movement of gold had reached the enormous aggregate of \$108,922,975, the export balance against us being almost \$87,000,000 for the twelvemonth,—the highest in the thirteen-year period since 1891. The outgo in the closing months of 1892 plainly foreshadowed a financial crisis.

Exactly the reverse is now true. While in 1898 the excess of our gold imports over exports was almost \$105,000,000, the balance was \$3,693,000 against us in 1900; for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1901, we imported \$66,000,000 of gold and exported \$53,000,000, the import excess in our favor approximating \$13,000,000; last year,—the fiscal period ended June 30, 1902,—the gold imports were \$52,021,254, against \$48,568,950 of exports, a balance of about three and a half millions in our favor; on June 30, 1903, the account stood almost even,—only \$108,468 in excess of exports over imports. For the eleven months of the calendar year closed with November 30, 1903, our imports of gold stood at \$48,027,051, against \$42,882,178 in exports,—an increase of more than \$6,000,000 over the record for the corresponding months a year ago, and an excess above the exports approximating \$5,200,000. With such a condition confronting him a panic-prognosticator would be hard pushed indeed for basic material.

THE PROSPECT OF GOLD PRODUCTION.

No survey of the business outlook can consistently exclude the production of gold as a factor in determining what is in store for our trade, for it is the metal most commonly employed, the world over, as a basis for currency. Albeit a great increase in the world's production of gold may sometimes operate to bring on “panics” and all their concomitants, by supplying the means for wild-cat enterprises and inordinate speculation, it is now quite generally agreed among economists that the steadily increasing production of the metal tends, on the whole, to delay the approach of commercial depression and to materially lessen the extent of it when it does come. For the calendar year 1899 the world's output of gold was 14,937,775 fine ounces, valued at \$306,724,100,—the largest yearly production in the long history of the gold-mining

industry. Owing chiefly to the Boer War affecting operations in the Transvaal, the output fell off in 1900 to 12,315,135 ounces, valued at \$254,576,300; the production in 1901 rose to 12,740,746 ounces, valued at \$263,374,700; it was still higher in 1902,—an aggregate of 14,313,660 ounces, valued at \$295,889,000. Of this total the United States furnished 3,870,000 ounces, valued at \$80,000,000, or about 27 per cent. of it. On the highest authority, it is now estimated that the world's gold production of 1903 will considerably exceed that of the record year 1899, although the South Africa mines have not as yet equaled their output of that year, but are steadily approaching it. With that maximum attained—or perhaps exceeded—and with the present marked increase in the Alaska product continuing, the prospect is that in 1904 the world will add something like \$315,000,000 or \$320,000,000 to its present store of gold. That prospect can hardly be interpreted as betokening the approach of a crisis in our financial and industrial affairs. It holds out no inviting morsel for the trade pessimist, surely.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND IN THE COAL TRADE.

Take the anthracite coal trade as another illustration of a rather hopeful outlook. The tone of that market is a decidedly cheerful one. To be sure, the steady cold weather in the middle weeks of December served very materially to quicken the demand from all consuming points, but the amount of anthracite going forward to market had been steadily increasing for many weeks prior to that period,—the shipments for November showing a total of rising 4,000,000 tons; the aggregate for the eleven months being about 55,100,000 tons. Prices under this demand pressure remained unchanged,—this steadiness being a most hopeful sign and a feature of the trade in marked contrast with that of a year ago, the big strike period. The anthracite deliveries for 1903 will unquestionably show an aggregate exceeding 60,000,000 tons,—the highest on record in the history of the industry,—and it would not be surprising if the figures were to disclose shipments of 62,000,000 tons. To compare this with the 1902 output would be valueless from a trade standpoint, for the labor disturbances of that year operated to make the shipments abnormally low in volume. Comparison with the deliveries of 1901, however, shows an increase of nearly 7,000,000 tons in favor of 1903, and of over 12,000,000 tons from the anthracite output of 1899, which was 47,665,000 tons, and held the high record up to that time.

The fact is that the forced recourse to the use of bituminous coal in 1902 did not eventuate,

as was quite generally predicted, in a permanent employment of that fuel. Manufacturers have gone back to anthracite along with the consumers for domestic purposes, and the largely increased demand in the closing months of the year indicated a generally healthy condition of mill industries, in the East especially.

ENCOURAGEMENT IN OUR EXPORT TRADE.

Let us examine briefly the foreign trade of the United States. Is there nothing significant in the November record, the latest at hand? The mid-December Government report on our foreign commerce for the previous month discloses merchandise exports of \$160,455,590 in value, against imports of \$77,061,806,—the highest November export record in our commercial history and the largest monthly exports on record, with the exception of October, 1900, when they amounted to \$163,389,680. The excess of exports is also the second largest in the country's history, the excess in October, 1900, being \$92,758,646, while last month's was \$83,393,784. The nearest approach to last month's excess (with the exception of October, 1900) was in December, 1898, when exports exceeded imports to the amount of \$82,711,455. Of course, the cotton shipments, abnormal in value, had much to do with this, and to that extent,—the cotton export increase for the two months of October and November alone being \$50,786,000 over the corresponding months in 1902,—they discount the significance of the export trade movement and raise at the same time some new questions that tend to complicate the situation somewhat. But there is nothing dispiriting in it, as a whole, from any point of view.

SILVER, THE TRUSTS, AND THE TARIFF.

To attempt to disguise the fact that there are some distinct signs of lessened industrial and commercial activity abroad, and therefore of reduced purchasing power, would be futile. These indications are in chief evidence, too, among some of our best foreign customers.

The country's monetary system has been freed of the weaknesses that marked it in the periods preceding the crises of 1873 and 1893, and although it is still far short of perfect, it is an element in the situation inducing stability and promoting world-wide confidence in our commercial soundness and our financial integrity.

The consolidation of great industrial, financial, transportation, and other enterprises in recent years, despite the objectionable features or positive evils that they may have projected, has been in the main a steadying influence in our affairs, checking over-production, minimizing ruinous

competition, and so limiting and concentrating control as to eliminate many of the weak elements in the old system. There is little menace in the "trusts" at present.

Of the two issues in national elections that have operated most disastrously on American trade in the recent past, the free coinage of silver and the tariff, the former is as dead as a coffin nail; the latter is not likely to cut any considerable figure in the campaign of 1904. It was unquestionably a potent factor in precipitating the "panic" of 1893 by reason of the widespread uncertainty as to just what would be done with the McKinley law. The coming contest over the Presidency can hardly be said to menace business beyond the customary absorption of popular interest that it temporarily involves.

THE LABOR PROBLEM.

The conditions surrounding organized labor have been increasingly a menace to our national prosperity for nearly two years past. They are still an ugly factor in the industrial situation. In spots, they portend serious disaster. Nowhere is there a feeling of perfect security against the possibility of an imposition of the vicious policies that have too generally blackened the records of the trade-unions during the greater part of 1903. They are the most conspicuous "black spots" on the orb of our industrial system, and the worst of it is that they are likely to continue there. There are two offsetting considerations, however, that serve to lessen the danger; the "boom" period having attained and passed its maximum intensity, and industrial conditions generally being now approximately normal, strikes are not so likely to succeed as at a time when employers deemed yielding the shortest cut to peace and continued activity; and this ought to act as a deterrent on the leaders of organized labor in their policy of aggression. Labor agitators cannot be depended upon to act the part of caution and farsightedness. The other factor operating to quiet fears is the movement among American employers for general organization in order the better to defend themselves against the encroachments of unionism. Taken together, these two considerations constitute a bright spot in the rather dark labor horizon. They tend to minimize the danger, but they are far from eliminating it.

THE SPREAD OF EDUCATION.

To summarize, the hopeful features in the business outlook appear to far outnumber and to surpass in importance the dispiriting ones. If one potent factor in the former category were

still to be added, the expansion of popular education among the American masses might be named as a beneficent influence in our industrial and commercial life almost immeasurable, although commonly left out of the reckoning; incidentally, the spread of technical and special education in recent years is clearly a sustaining and steadying force in it.

"All the perplexities, confusions, and distresses in America," wrote John Adams to Thomas Jefferson in 1787, "arise not from defects in their Constitution or confederation, not from want of honor or virtue, so much as from downright ignorance of the nature of coin, credit, and circulation." And that always delightful financier-essayist who gave us "Lombard Street" more than thirty years ago, Walter Bagehot, searching for a chief cause for commercial crises and industrial depressions, was not so very far away from John Adams when he said: "Aristotle, who was not in trade, imagined that money is barren; and barren it is to quiet ladies, rural clergymen, and country misers. But one thing is certain,—that at particular times a great many stupid persons have a great deal of stupid money, and they don't know what to do with it. Thus cash accumulates in the hands of a lot of 'grandmothers' who have no knowledge of business, but possess only the faculty of saving. When this 'blind capital' gets particularly large and craving, it is bound to get devoured at any cost,—and there you have the starting of a genuine 'panic.' My remedy? Here it is: Not to allow any man to have a hundred pounds who cannot prove to the satisfaction of the lord chancellor that he knows what to do with a hundred pounds."

This Bagehot proposition is not so impracticable and absurd as it might appear at first blush. Ignorance has ever been a chief cause of most business failures and commercial collapses. There is a growing popular conviction that the more educated men enter business life, the more intelligently, safely, successfully, and soundly will business be conducted; and that belief is bearing fruit already in the increasing care with which parents study their boys' early tastes and capabilities, and in the increasing number and success of institutions of learning that aim to breed boys for business and to turn out future "captains of industry." Education,—no matter how "liberal," how technical, how special, how broad,—must inevitably lead to a more intelligent, a more scientific, direction of productive energy and the conduct of trade. As that happens, failures must decrease in number and importance, and a by no means inconsiderable cause of financial panics be thus gradually removed.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

JAPAN AND RUSSIA.

THE menace of war in the far East between Russia and Japan continues to attract the attention of review writers. Dr. Dillon's "Foreign Affairs" in the December *Contemporary* are chiefly Russo-Japanese affairs. Dr. Dillon does not believe in the alleged imminence of armed conflict. He speaks of "the recent acute stage of a chronic quarrel," and declares that the danger has receded, if not vanished.

Dr. Dillon thinks that the Japanese will not be so foolish as to go to war, as he holds they will certainly be worsted. Peace or war, the result is inevitable in Russia gaining her ends. At the same time, he admits that Russia would at present find Japan a difficult mouthful, whereas in a year or so her position will be so much stronger that the difficulty will have disappeared.

JAPAN'S EXISTENCE AT STAKE.

"Has Japan any chance of beating Russia on sea or land? Can she bear the strain even of a successful campaign? Can she run the risk of defeat? And it is the obvious answer to these questions which causes her statesmen to curb the vehemence of the crowd. I have talked the matter over with some of the most prominent public men of Japan, and their view is that the matter is one of ways and means: the spirit is willing, but the flesh is weak. Thus the Japanese land forces are admirably disciplined, fearless to the point of foolhardiness, and endowed with wonderful staying powers over and above. But their numbers are limited, while those of Russia will give out only when means of transport fail. The Japanese nation is, unfortunately, as yet only an empire in miniature. Given another fifty years with a free hand in China, Japan would hold her own against the world. To-day her very existence as a great power is at stake.

"Among the considerations which militate against a declaration of war by Japan are the want of money, the hopelessness of a single-handed onslaught on Russia, and the utter ruin which defeat would involve."

The Bone of Contention.

Mr. R. J. Farrer contributes to the *Nineteenth Century* a brief but picturesque account of his "Impressions of Korea." He lays stress upon the hatred which the Koreans feel for the Japanese, and declares that if the latter ever hold the country it will be in chains of conquest, not

in bands of loyalty. The Koreans he regards as the stupidest, and at the same time the happiest, people in the world.

KOREAN INDIFFERENCE TO LIFE.

"The character of the Koreans is a riddle. They seem a race sovereignly indifferent to the changes and chances of this mortal life. They front life and death with the same uninterested placidity. Fate leads them onward, and they go quietly like cattle to the shambles. Little wonder that the nations of the East have always treated them like cattle. Opportunity excuses tyranny. The Korean is a fine stout fellow with plenty of vigor, who takes pleasure in wild and brutal stone fights; and yet he is also a passive, silent dolt, who will allow himself, even when in force, to be beaten, bullied, and boxed by one Japanese so small that he almost requires a stool to reach his victim's ears. The Korean is not to be moved by love nor by hate. His pleasure in life is to go with his pipe to a hill-top, and there to sit all day in an unbroken silence. His memory is long and stolid, but without result in action. At present, if he had a feeling at all, it might be resentment for the queen murdered now ten years ago.

A SURVIVAL OF TWENTY CENTURIES.

"The Emperor of Korea has exchanged his fealty to China for a complicated slavery to most of the hotel-keepers in the remotest East. He is obsessed by a crowd of advisers to the throne, appointed by almost every European power, and recruited from every possible rank of life. He has a further taste of Western blessings in the religious massacres that from time to time threaten his security by a sanguinary convulsion between Catholic and Protestant converts, with their pastors. Such a trouble is at present going forward in the interior with a zeal that may result at any moment in a revolution. The government, as it now stands, is a pure despotism tempered by abject poverty, and by many Western notions translated into the vernacular from his Majesty's Western advisers. In the domain of finance the waste is phenomenal, and bribery on the wildest scale governs the Emperor's ministers in every department. Torture and punishment are still barbarous. Literature and art can never be said to have existed in any developed forms,—unless we make an exception in favor of the exquisite and delicate white

porcelain that is quarried occasionally from the tombs of forgotten kings. The people is as it was two thousand years ago in its contemptuous indifference to life, to well-being, and to all the resources of prosperity."

THE NEW REPUBLIC OF PANAMA.

MORE or less confusion exists in the popular mind regarding the historical antecedents of the new-born republic of Panama. To a great degree this confusion may be dispelled by a reading of the article contributed to the *North American Review* for December by Señor Eusebio A. Morales, minister of state in the provisional government. His account of the vicissitudes through which his country has passed during the last hundred years runs as follows:

"The territory comprised in the Isthmus of Panama formed a part of the Spanish colonies in South America up to November 28, 1821. On that day, the inhabitants proclaimed their independence, and, by a spontaneous act of their own, they were incorporated in the then powerful republic of Colombia, embracing, as it did, in its vast dominions the whole extent of territory that the crown of Spain had designated under the appellatives of Viceroyalty of New Granada, Dominion or Captaincy-General of Venezuela, and Presidency of Quito.

"The Isthmians, on proclaiming their independence of the government of Spain, sought to improve their condition and to insure their future well-being; and, in becoming a part and portion of Colombia, they held in view the prospect of obtaining, without the sacrifice of their legitimate aspirations, the protection of a nation which, in the course of a long and cruel war for its independence, had given evidence that it possessed brilliant and heroic attributes.

"There prevailed then in that immense country, which was bounded on the south by Brazil and Peru, and on the east by Guyana, a system of centralized government, unfit for satisfying the aspirations or for ministering to the various needs and requirements of provinces so far apart; and, consequently, from the very birth of the republic, there were deep-thinking men and eminent politicians who ranged themselves on the side of a federal régime.

"The great republic of Colombia was dissolved in the year 1831; and from it there arose the three republics, called Venezuela, Ecuador, and New Granada. The system of centralized government remained, nevertheless, unaltered in the constitution which was adopted by the last-mentioned nation in the year 1832, and the various sections continued to bear the burden

of that system of forced uniformity, which, through inevitable reaction, carried within itself the hidden yet imminent peril of premature dissolution.

"That was the origin of the civil war that broke out, in the year 1840, in the greater number of the provinces of New Granada. The rebellious provinces denounced the constitution of 1832, and proclaimed the federation.

"The provinces of Panama and Veragua,—those, namely, into which the Isthmus was at that time divided,—proclaimed their separation from New Granada, and formed an independent and sovereign state, and by an act called the Fundamental Law of the State, passed on March 18, 1841, by the convention assembled for the purpose, ratified the separation, giving to the nation thus created the name of the state of the Isthmus, and making it a point of law that it was the irrevocable will of the Isthmians never again to be incorporated in the republic of New Granada under the centralized régime.

"The partisans of the federation were overcome, and centralism was reestablished by force throughout the country; but the conception was not extinguished; and, fourteen years later, the Congress of New Granada enacted a law whereby the state of Panama was created as an autonomous entity, with the right to govern itself, provide for its necessities, and promote its progress. This act was followed by other similar ones, and in 1858 federation was an accomplished fact throughout the country.

"The national government strove to undermine the federal organization, and by its acts provoked a revolution which obtained a definite triumph, and firmly established the federal system for the space of twenty-three years. Another civil war in 1885 was the occasion of the reestablishment of the absolute central and oppressive régime that still prevails throughout the republic of Colombia."

The Panama Revolution from a German Point of View.

Dr. von Halle, writing in *Die Woche* for November 14, sums up the outcome of the revolution as follows: "The Stars and Stripes will wave over the canal and protect the state of Panama. The European powers will probably regard this outcome with perfect equanimity, for some such occurrence had been anticipated, and the only result will be that the diplomatic gatherings in the European capitals will be increased by the picturesque figure of a new exotic diplomat, the representative of the new republic. The need of expansion of North American trade toward the Pacific and eastern Asia will be sat

ified, and the European commercial nations will probably, for the present at least, reap equal advantages for their traffic with the western coast of the continent. The creation of a great public highway under American auspices is politically important, chiefly for England, and in a lesser degree for the other nations having interests in American waters and the point of transit there. It is least important for us, since we neither possess nor desire American colonies. In virtue of these occurrences, however, the distrust of the Spanish-American countries toward the imperialistic tendencies of the United States, and their objection to the latter's interpretation of the Monroe Doctrine, will be increased. But the North Americans will care little for this distrust, since it is one of the strong points of the Monroe Doctrine that it gives free hand to the United States in its dealings with those small South American states."

WILL THE UNITED STATES ABSORB MEXICO?

AFTER tracing rapidly the history of Mexico under Spanish domination, and showing how the Spanish influence is still active among the people, "more than 80 per cent. of whom are Indians or people of mixed blood," Mr. Walter F. McCaleb, in the January *Munsey's*, describes the present political and economic conditions of Mexico, and concludes from them that "a century hence we may confidently expect to see it in the hands of Americans,—commercially if not politically." Mr. McCaleb outlines concisely the story of the American commercial invasion of Mexico.

"More than four hundred millions of American dollars are invested in the mines and pastures of our southern neighbor. Her railways are listed on the New York Stock Exchange, the two leading systems—the Mexican Central and the National of Mexico—having no less than five thousand miles of trackage.

"Already Mexico's agricultural methods have been revolutionized. The old, bent-stick plows and outlandish farm utensils, for all the world like those of ancient Egypt, are being replaced by iron and steel tools, and with surprising results. More work and better work is accomplished.

INDUSTRIAL PROGRESS.

"Nor is progress limited to this field. In mining, the old quicksilver or *patio* process of extracting ores, while still in use in some sections, has generally been supplanted by American methods. In various places great smelting plants are kept hot with the work of converting

the silver and lead and gold ores, which, in some instances, are hauled hundreds of miles.

"The ranching industries, too, have suffered transformation. Not many years ago, only the native breed of cattle, very like the longhorn of Texas, was the care of the *ranchero*. To-day, the Hereford, the Durham, and other fine breeds of the North may be seen in the market stalls.

"In manufacturing, a wonderful change has come. Cotton and woolen mills, lumber and planing mills, ice plants, cracker and biscuit and canning establishments, machine shops and foundries, are scattered through the land from Chihuahua to Yucatan. New methods in irrigating the waste tracts of the republic; new systems of waterworks, electric lighting, and tramways; sewers and telegraphs and telephones,—all these mark the passing of the old order of things, the Mexico of the half-century of revolutions. There are locomotives where once was the ox-cart; there are factories where the solitary weaver once bent over his loom.

"Already, too, the advent of the American has told on the system of peonage. The debtor, bound to some *hacienda* at a wage of fifteen cents per day, can hope to free himself of debt and win a larger increment under the new industrial régime. This is made possible through selling his services to the American, who promptly satisfies the obligations of the peon to his former master. The whole industrial fabric of the country has entered upon a transition stage, and what the end will be it is difficult to forecast, whether the present political status is destined to continue or to undergo gradual or sudden modification.

RELATIONS WITH UNCLE SAM.

"The American invasion has done much for Mexico. In return, the republic has been obliged to assume a grave responsibility—the protection of vested interests. Should the death of Diaz precipitate a revolution, as is possible though not probable; should the time come when the property of Americans is confiscated by contending factions, or the lives of American subjects endangered, the United States would of necessity speak, and speak plainly. Her right to do so is thoroughly recognized by international law. Should it be contested by the government in power at the ancient capital of the Aztecs, it would be vigorously asserted, and the incident might be closed by forcible occupation of the country.

"Fortunately, this particular contingency appears remote. Apart from such a possibility, however, there are reasons for thinking that at no far day the relations between the two coun-

tries must take on a different form. Absorption, rather than annexation, is the word. There are lessons in history which teach that we may confidently look forward to this result.

"Already the trader, the *adelantado* of commerce, has pitched his tent for good beyond the Rio Grande. Mexico's export trade with the United States during the fiscal year 1901-1902 amounted to \$39,873,606, not reckoning specie. In return, she took from us \$40,382,596 worth of food-stuffs and manufactures. The items are not small, and the tables show that they are growing by leaps and bounds. This is but a natural consequence of economic conditions; and as the two countries develop, the dependence of the one upon the other will of necessity become more and more vital and inexorable."

IS HUDSON BAY A "CLOSED SEA?"

THE "headland to headland" doctrine of the British Government, once admitted as a principle of international law, would make Hudson Bay a "closed sea," in the language of diplomats, and would deprive American whalers of access to the richest fishing grounds on the continent. The fact has not been generally noted in the United States that the Canadian government has recently sent an expedition to Hudson Bay in the sealing steamer *Neptune*, with the twofold object of expelling American whalers from those waters and determining the navigability of the bay as an ocean grain route. Mr. P. T. McGrath, writing in the *North American Review* for December, sees in this action the portent of a new Anglo-American dispute. His statement of the case follows:

"By the Treaty of Washington, in 1818, the American fishermen were granted equal rights with the British on the west coast of Newfoundland and northward indefinitely along Labrador, 'without prejudice, however, to any of the rights of the Hudson Bay Company.' The monopoly exercised by the latter, while absolutely comprehensive by reason of long usage, is yet sufficiently vague in its terms to make its precise effect a subject of nice diplomatic disputation. Its charter was granted prior to the cession of the bay to England, and reaffirmed in the treaties of Utrecht and Washington, but the foregoing clause might be construed to mean that the Americans could fish in the waters of Hudson Bay if and where they did not infringe upon the rights of the 'Great Company.' Along West Newfoundland and Labrador, the Americans are on equality with Newfoundland and Canadian fishermen. Labrador, according to English statutes, terminates at Cape Chidley, its north-

ern promontory. Then Hudson Strait, 45 miles across to Cape Resolution, in Baffin-Land, and extending west 500 miles, forms the entrance to Hudson Bay. Therefore, the question arises, does the concession to United States subjects to fish 'northward indefinitely,' in the Treaty of 1818, mean that it ceases at Cape Chidley and revives at Cape Resolution; or was it the intention that the same right should continue into Hudson Strait and bay, not alone as regards the off-shore waters of mid-channel, but also the 'territorial' waters of the inshore area or 'three-mile limit'?"

"The force of this query can be more clearly appreciated if it is remembered that the United States has not subscribed to the British headland to headland doctrine, by which all the waters within a line drawn from headland to headland are held to be embayed, or territorial, and to constitute the *mare clausum* of diplomats. Uncle Sam has, on the contrary, contended for the three-mile limit following the sinuosities of the seaboard. Hudson Bay is the third largest inclosed marine area in the world, being next in size to the Mediterranean Sea and the Caribbean Sea, and a bill is now before the Ottawa Parliament to change its name to the Canadian Sea, 'for good political and national reasons, and to assert Canadian supremacy over the waters of the bay and the adjoining territory.'"

According to Mr. McGrath, American whalers from New Bedford are practically the only people who have frequented the bay for the past sixty years. It is argued that their prosecution of the fishery for so long a period, without interference, virtually establishes a right which England is bound to respect.

RICHES OF THE BAY.

Few Americans have any conception of the importance of the Hudson Bay fisheries to the New Englanders who yearly brave the perils of an Arctic winter.

"The marine wealth of the bay is so vast and varied that it is easy to understand why Canada should be desirous of preserving it to her people alone. Chief among the denizens of its waters are the mighty 'bowheads' or Arctic whales. These have the longest and finest whalebone, worth \$14,000 a ton, and an adult bowhead will yield 1,500 pounds, besides the oil obtained from its carcass, so that a whale is valued at from \$12,000 to \$20,000, according to size. United States statistics show that, during ten years, the whale fisheries of Hudson Bay realized a total value of \$1,371,000 for fifty voyages, or \$27,430 per voyage. These figures illustrate sufficiently

the feeling with which American whalers will view a proposal to expel them from the region ; for not only would their exclusion prevent their fishing in Hudson Bay or strait, but it would also debar them from access to the channels which strike north through the *terra incognita* west of Baffin-Land, and which are now the favorite haunt of the polar whale.

"From their winter quarters at Marble Island, whalers pursue their prey every spring as soon as the ice breaks up, and all through the season until navigation closes. Besides these black whales, which are sometimes 70 to 90 feet long, white whales, about 14 feet long, and valuable for both hide and oil, are also found in great numbers, one Canadian explorer asserting that he has 'observed the surface of the water, as far as the eye could reach from the deck of a vessel, appear an undulating sheet of white, caused by vast shoals of them.' Walruses, too, are seen in large numbers there. The hide, used for belting, weighs three hundred pounds and averages ten cents a pound, the ivory tusks usually being worth ten dollars. Then, narwhals occur there less frequently, and porpoises exist in innumerable shoals, whose hide and oil have a wide demand in the manufacturing world. The square-flipper seals have their mating-place in the bay, and are steadily hunted, they being almost as large as the walrus. All these creatures are the spoil of the whaler, and used to complete his lading ; and the hard-working New Englanders will certainly wonder why, after sixty years of undisputed fishing there, they are now required to leave."

THE BAY ROUTE FOR THROUGH SHIPPING.

Mr. McGrath sets forth some of the advantages of the Hudson Bay route for grain shipments from the far Northwest direct to Europe. He shows that the distance by that route from Winnipeg to Liverpool is nearly six hundred miles shorter than the usual route from Duluth, *via* New York, to Liverpool. The main question is whether the strait remains navigable late enough in the fall to permit the transportation of each season's crop to market immediately after harvest. This matter seems to be in doubt. Mr. McGrath thinks, however, that there would be abundant traffic for the route during the four or five months of open water. From the Canadian point of view, the strategic conditions favoring the route are, "the gain in time which it would effect in moving troops, and the part it would play as a secondary base for England in time of war. With an enemy's cruisers blocking the St. Lawrence, Canada would be impotent for defense, had she not another ocean highway

affording access to and from the mother country. A patrol at the mouth of the strait would close it to alien shipping, and British transports or freighters could be escorted in or out under convoy. By the several railroads now projected to the bay from different parts of Canada, troops could be distributed to important centers expeditiously and economically, or assembled at this convenient base for conveyance elsewhere. Indeed, the scheme in its general details has much to commend it, and will undoubtedly be proceeded with if the *Neptune's* report is favorable. The more immediate endeavor, though, will be how to avoid a second Alaskan boundary dispute in this territory, which is threatened by Canada's reaffirming her sovereignty and expelling American whalers. Whether no untoward result will ensue, or whether another cause of quarrel between Uncle Sam and John Bull will be created, remains to be seen ; but, in any event, Hudson Bay is destined soon to become a more prominent factor in the commercial and political relations of Canada and the United States than it has hitherto been."

CANADA'S ATTITUDE TOWARD BRITISH IMPERIALISM.

JUDGED by its importance for Englishmen, the article on "Canada and the New Imperialism," which comes first in the December *Contemporary Review*, has a good right to its prominent place. The author of this article is Mr. E. Farrer ; and the bent of his argument is that Canada is not imperialist, is becoming less imperialist, and in particular feels nothing but aversion for the developments of imperialism which are associated with the name of Mr. Chamberlain.

CANADIANS AND ENGLISHMEN.

There is a great gulf fixed, says Mr. Farrer, between Canadians and Englishmen. The physical and mental outfit differs. The British-Canadians are much more like Americans than like Englishmen, while the French-Canadians are attached to their country where Englishmen are attached to their sovereign. French-Canadian sentiment is loyal to England to the extent of not being consciously disloyal. But neither French nor British-Canadians will have the new imperialism. The French are particularly opposed to it, because they see as its object the uprooting of little nationalities within the empire.

"To suppose that the French-Canadian would voluntarily return to slavery and serve England whenever she saw fit to summon him against Germany, Russia, or France,—he who, with the

key of Canada, the St. Lawrence River, in his possession, would be welcomed any day into the neighboring republic, taken into partnership, so to say, with Rothschild,—is, according to his way of thinking, as wild a dream as ever entered an Englishman's head."

Mr. Farrer says that Sir Wilfrid Laurier's reluctance to contribute to the imperial forces is based upon the fact that such a policy would annihilate his party in Quebec; and that the English-speaking provinces are equally opposed to any such scheme. All the French and 75 per cent. of the British-Canadians would resist any such attempt, and would resist equally any narrowing of the sphere of Canadian self-government. Mr. Farrer says:

"I venture to think, indeed, that imperialists have done a good deal to weaken the British connection by bringing forward schemes that involve reactionary changes in our relations with Britain."

He ridicules the idea that England gives any protection to Canada. Canada's territory and her shipping are liable to no attack except such as would result from her connection with England. Under the Monroe Doctrine only one power could attack Canada, and that is the United States, against which England could not and would not protect her.

THE AMERICANIZATION OF CANADA.

Mr. Farrer insists that the whole tendency is to increase Canada's solidarity with the rest of the American continent and to operate against her solidarity with England. A Canadian thinks less of settling in "the States" than a Scotchman of removing to London, and there are now a million Canadians south of the frontier. In fact, owing to this cause the ten million dollars spent during the last thirty years in immigration work in Europe has had no result. Intellectually and socially, the two North American states are one. A Canadian who attains success in any intellectual department is annexed at once by the United States; and even British news comes to Canada through American channels.

AGAINST FEDERATION.

Mr. Farrer ridicules the idea that any form of imperial federation is possible. This he calls the "sentimental vision of our imperialist friends." Representation at Westminster would result either in the colonies being always overruled, with an obvious bad effect, or the still greater anomaly of the colonies dictating the policy of the mother country. He says: "The whole theory of the new imperialism rests on the flimsiest sort of underpinning."

The attempts made by the new imperialists to

attach colonial politicians by distributing titles awakes his ridicule.

THE PREFERENTIAL SNARE.

For this Mr. Farrer has most contempt of all. He says flatly that whatever England may offer, it is absurd to think the colonies will make any large concessions to the British manufacturer. Even as it is, thousands of factories exist in Canada whose owners are constantly complaining that they have not sufficient protection against British goods. Moreover, Canada's demands from England would be without limit. Only the Northwest would profit materially from preference in grain. The other provinces would, therefore, demand preference for their own particular products, which include all kinds of food and raw material.

PROFESSOR MARTENS ON THE NEUTRALIZATION OF DENMARK.

IN the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, the well-known international jurist, Professor Martens, writes on the subject of the possibility of neutralizing Denmark and on the probable results of such an action. Enabled both by his vast experience and by his unique position in international affairs to judge of any such question in the best possible way, Professor Martens has also for many years thought over the Danish problem. Nor does the article express only his private opinion, since we read in a note that "in the spring of 1889 the author had occasion to raise in the very highest Russian Government circles the question of the neutralization of Denmark. The memorandum which he drew up on this question was honored by the most sincere and the most flattering sympathy. Modified somewhat by developments and necessary changes, that memorandum forms the basis of the present article."

Denmark, both because of its geographical position and because of the chain of circumstances which has led to its being the home of the European reigning family circles, possesses an opportunity for sanctioned experiment unobtainable elsewhere. It is very doubtful whether any of the great states connected by blood through their heads with the Danish sovereign would place great obstacles in the way of any reasonable desire on the part of Denmark.

WHY NECESSARY.

Professor Martens gives many good reasons why the neutralization of Denmark should be considered necessary.

"By her good sense, her political manners, her national customs, founded on a sort of social

probity, also by her boundless veneration for her old King and the royal family, the little nation of Denmark has succeeded in conquering the deepest sympathies of all those who know her."

This idea of neutralization is as keenly supported by the Danes themselves as it is by their foreign friends. The writer says :

"In Denmark herself the best patriots have seen in the question of the neutralization of their country a practical means of safeguarding her integrity and her independence. Quite recently, thanks to the Hague Conference, this question has been discussed and examined from every point of view by the authorized organs of public opinion not only in Denmark, but in Sweden and Norway. In the last two countries the hope is entertained that the neutralization of Denmark would inevitably be followed by the permanent neutralization of the two Scandinavian states."

NEUTRALIZATION ALWAYS A SUCCESS.

Professor Martens traces in an able manner the progress of the idea of national neutrality through history. Everywhere it has met with practical success, and this alone should encourage those who are skeptical as to the practical nature of the project. Switzerland has remained neutral for more than a century, and in 1815 the allies declared in the treaty of Paris that "the neutrality and inviolability of Switzerland, as well as her independence from all foreign influence, is conformable with the true interests of European politics." Since 1815, this neutrality has been strictly maintained, even during the wars which have raged near the Swiss frontiers. This neutrality is guaranteed by all the signatory powers of the Vienna Conference. Professor Martens points out very clearly in this connection that, whatever may be the additional reasons for the neutrality of a state, the voice of the people is the only foundation upon which such a state of affairs can be built.

Belgium became neutral in 1831. In the terms of the convention "it will form a state independent and perpetually neutral within the indicated limits." This neutrality was guaranteed by the five powers, who, in intervening in the Belgian revolution, thought it necessary to bring into being the kingdom of Belgium. In 1870, when Belgian neutrality was seriously menaced, Great Britain, as one of the guarantors, gave an absolute assurance against any possible violations of neutrality.

ITS ADVANTAGES.

"Neutrality," says Professor Martens, "gives to a state a special and exceptional position ; dur-

ing wars between other states it remains perpetually peaceful, and does not engage in hostility directly or indirectly. The neutralized state renounces every idea of conquest, every political ambition. It wishes to live in peace with all the world, and devote itself entirely to the moral and economic progress of its citizens. International politics do not exist for it, and its historical mission consists, for example, in the propaganda of peace and normal pacific progress. This conception of perpetual neutrality is founded on experience, and conforms to the highest aspirations of modern nations."

Denmark has the advantage that the possession of Copenhagen has never seemed so vital as did that of Constantinople when at Tilsit, in 1807, Napoleon and the Emperor Alexander redrafted the map of Europe. Many things Napoleon granted to Russia without comment, but when it came to be a question of Constantinople, he placed his finger on the map and said, "Constantinople, no ! Never ! It means the empire of the world."

BALTIC PRECEDENTS.

Already, in 1781, England, France, and Holland agreed in principle to the neutralization of the Baltic. This agreement was, later, broken, but Professor Martens argues, and argues well, that now is the time for something practical to be done in this direction.

"The only efficacious and practical means is the proclamation of the perpetual neutrality of Denmark, charged also perpetually with the rôle of guardian of the entrance to the Baltic. The neutralization of Denmark must of necessity extend also to the Sund and the Belts."

To proclaim the perpetual neutrality of Denmark is to proclaim also her perpetual independence.

"Denmark has the incontestable right to declare of her own will her unshakable determination to remain perpetually neutral and not to intervene in any way in conflicts between foreign powers. The two other Scandinavian states, Sweden and Norway, have the same right, and the right also of joining with Denmark in order to maintain their perpetual common neutrality. A declaration made in this form would command the same observance of the neutrality of these states as if it was guaranteed by the wish of the great powers.

NEUTRAL DENMARK'S FUTURE.

"The Danish nation, perpetually neutralized, would devote herself exclusively to her material social progress. She would remain her own mistress in her own territory, and she would

continue to receive with the same hospitality all nations, under the express condition that they observe the laws of the country and respect the perpetual neutrality of Denmark. In the case of a war among foreign nations, Denmark would have no need to declare neutrality formally and to compel all vessels passing the Sund to respect her neutrality. All the nations would know in advance that this little country has nothing to do with international complications which may trouble the world's peace. Every accusation or suspicion that she wished to intervene in the combinations of the powers would disappear and, in a word, the neutralization of Denmark would be her defense and refuge."

Professor Martens goes on to develop his theme, and shows how the neutralization of Denmark may well lead to further neutralizations of small states. In time these states would become a power in the world, all actuated by peaceful ideas and all in favor of arbitration. He quotes M. Léon Bourgeois' speech at the Hague, in which he said :

That in conflicts of brute force, when it is a question of putting into line soldiers of flesh and steel, there are large natures and small, feeble and strong. When it is a question of throwing into the balance the swords of the conflicting powers, one may be more heavy and the other more light. But when it is a question of throwing ideas and rights into the balance, all inequality ceases, and the rights of the smallest and weakest weigh equally with the rights of the greatest.

Professor Martens is convinced that the small neutral states will be the most ardent adherents to the idea of disarmament and arbitration.

THE UNITED STATES OF EUROPE.

FROM the European point of view, the cause of international union never looked so bright as to-day. It has even penetrated the English reviews, those hoary citadels of dislike of anything savoring of idealism in politics. Mrs. Emily Crawford proclaims it aloud in the December *Fortnightly Review*. Mrs. Crawford declares that Europe is now ripe for federation, and she implies that had it not been for the war of 1870, it might have been realized ere now.

THE INTERNATIONALIZATION OF THOUGHT.

Europe, Mrs. Crawford points out, is not half so divided as its statesmen are.

"European middle-class minds are united in scientific knowledge and faith. They have received an almost identical high-school and university training. Their different patriotisms,—I would lay great stress on this remark,—are of similar quality; ideal and historical, very

different from the realistic patriotism of newer countries. Europeans are growing cosmopolitan; a Frenchman and an Englishman are more alike than their fathers were. They are bound closer than ever by business relations, and see one another in their holiday travels. They read in all the capitals the news of the day telegraphed from their own country. Every high-class author now has a European public, though he write in such a high latitude as Norway. The king of European critics, Brandes, lives at Copenhagen. Tolstoy declares his gospel *urbi et orbi* from his remote country house of Yasnaya Poliana. When Castelar lived, his warm eloquence stirred all Europe. Darwin and Herbert Spencer are foreigners nowhere. The Socialist economists write for the European millions. Labor congresses and conferences hasten the process of denationalization. Railway traffic suffers from state frontiers, and shareholders would be glad if they were blotted out. The burden of vast armies and navies becomes intolerable to all classes. Theological dogma has died out among leaders of thought, and it is all but dead among the middle and even working classes, though outward conformity may long remain,—as it remains in Japan, where beliefs have died out too.

THE COMING FEDERATION.

"My forecast of Europe is federation. The lessons of the Boer War and the commercial competition of the United States bid Europe to federate. Submarine destroyers will work in this direction. Russia wants quietly to digest her more recent acquisitions.

"A universal impulse in favor of peace may be felt everywhere on this continent. The action of three monarchical states in sending squadrons to Algiers to salute President Loubet is a hopeful sign. Europe has been lopsided since 1871; first, under the diplomatic supremacy of Bismarck; and, secondly, under the effect of the Russian-French alliance, which has been more or less of a mystification for the French.

"Europe is manifestly recovering her balance. France sees that she has drawn too many chestnuts out of the fire for Russia, and is sick of militarism. She would gladly revert to her eighteenth-century status, when she had an intellectual sway and was supreme in art and fashion from the Neva to the Tagus. She does not ask better than to refer troublesome international questions to the Hague Conference.

"Nothing short of a revolution has taken place since the death of President Faure in French ideas about military prowess and glory. The French begin to feel that they are too good

for the rough colonial work of the world, and that, in addicting themselves to art and science chiefly, they can hold an enviable primacy in the world. Americans should not imagine that Europeans are their inferiors. The nations of the Old World are chained down by survivals of the bad old times, by vested interests based on birth privileges and monopolies, and by the disunion among the European peoples which necessitates big armies. Circumstances render Americans free of all these fetters.

"When a European can follow an avocation without any let or hindrance, he does as well as the best American, and may do better, on the very high peaks of intellect, whether in science or in literature. Berthelot has no parallel anywhere. Marconi and Hertz equal Edison—to put it very mildly—and Lord Kelvin is illustrious as an inventor.

"The emancipation of Europe from the military incubus would free her genius, give it wings, and enable it to soar to heights yet undreamed of. Hope and joy could not but stimulate the sense of beauty, so strong in most European races, and better material conditions give scope to warm-hearted, generous sentiment. The European man or woman values happiness more than great wealth,—a state of mind that helps the artist, author, or scientist, and is the beginning of wisdom. The French and the Germans enjoy more than the British, save the Scotch, the use of their higher intellectual faculties. The Spaniard is happy in feeling he has a highly-wrought soul, and Italy is a country of great mental and æsthetic capabilities. The neutral states are forward in the production of middling people and a decent working-class population, but are not distinguished for high thought. A small country breeds small minds. Ibsen, however, relieves Norway from this reproach, and Maeterlinck Belgium. Denmark boasts of a great critic, Brandes. Nobel, whose peace prizes have rewarded the efforts of Frédéric Passy and Ducommun, was a Swede. He looked forward to a federated Europe, but never hoped to see it."

THE JEWS, THE CZAR, AND TOLSTOY.

Mrs. Crawford thinks that the Jew is one of the most powerful factors making for federation.

"He is cosmopolitan by heredity, instinct, and interest, by his keen sense of the madness of war, and his insight into individual character. The Jews rule in the newspaper office, in the theater, and in politics."

And she even thinks that Nicholas II. has obtained some of his love of peace from that one of his subjects who represents, in everything that relates to external position, his antithesis.

"I have before me two portraits of Tolstoy, one taken last year and the other in 1855, when he served as a lieutenant in the Russian army. The former is as the gnarled oak, and bears the impress of intellectual emotions that rose to stormy height and violence. The earlier one reveals the genius of a thinker, but, as yet, nothing of the apostle. Its most striking feature is its resemblance to the present Emperor, and for this reason I now mention it. This fact may be due to some blood relationship that will forever remain a mystery, or to the spirit of the time in which Tolstoy has been writing. Nicholas is a feminized and an abridged edition of the lieutenant whom the hellish conditions of the siege of Sebastopol transformed into a seer and apostle of humanity.

"This resemblance is a sign, I take it, of an affinity of some sort between the Czar—a man of but middling intellect—and the great author of 'Peace and War.' This book may have sunk into the mind of Nicholas—it has probably done so—and aroused in him the ambition of winning, without usurpation, the name of the Pacific Czar. His manifesto which led to the Peace Conference of the Hague was at first taken by European diplomacy to be a huge mystification. It rather strikes me as the suggestion of the Tolstoyism that is abroad in Russia."

The family gatherings at the palace of the Danish King have been another powerful factor. The King of Denmark tasted the bitterness of war early in his reign; and his late Queen, Louise, was a pronounced advocate of peace ideas. "Their parental love for their children, and, lastly, their love for Denmark, made them long for the realization of a popular dream: The United States of Europe."

CARL SCHURZ ON THE NEGRO PROBLEM.

IN the January *McClure's*, Mr. Carl Schurz discusses the Southern negro problem. Shortly after the Civil War, Mr. Schurz was sent South by President Johnson to investigate the then existing conditions, and taking this journey as a beginning, he traces rapidly the relations of Southern white people and negroes to the present day. Coming to the present time, the crucial point, says Mr. Schurz, is: "There will be a movement either in the direction of reducing the negroes to a permanent condition of serfdom, —the condition of the mere plantation hand, 'alongside the mule,' practically without any rights of citizenship,—or a movement in the direction of recognizing him as a citizen in the true sense of the term. One or the other will prevail." The matter being obviously a question

of race antagonism, the reactionist in the South makes the paramount problem, "How to keep the nigger down."

"As to the outlook," says Mr. Schurz, "there are signs pointing in different ways. The applause called forth by such virulent pronouncements as those by Governor Vardaman, and the growls with which some Southern newspapers and agitators receive the united efforts of high-minded Southern and Northern men to advance education in the Southern States among both races, as well as the political appeals made to a reckless race prejudice, are evidence that the reactionary spirit is a strong power with many Southern people. How far that spirit may go in its practical ventures was shown in the Alabama peonage cases, which disclosed a degree of unscrupulous greed, and an atrocious disregard of the most elementary principles of justice and humanity. And what has been proven creates the apprehension that there is still more of the same kind behind.

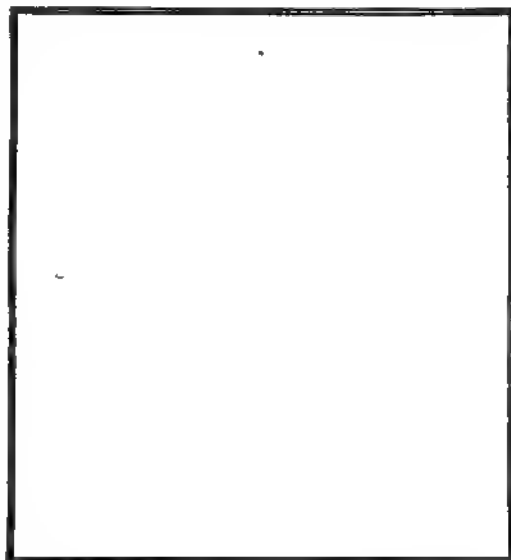
THE OUTLOOK NOT HOPELESS.

"On the other hand, the fact that the united efforts for education in the South are heartily and effectively supported not only by a large number of Southern men of high standing in society, but by some in important political office in the Southern States, and by a large portion of the Southern press; and the further fact that the crimes committed in the peonage cases were disclosed by Southern officers of the law, that the indictments were found by Southern grand juries, that verdicts of guilty were pronounced by Southern petit juries, that sentence was passed by a Southern judge in language the dignity and moral feeling of which could hardly have been more elevated, and that the exposure of those crimes evoked among the people of the South many demonstrations of righteous wrath at such villainies,—all these things and others of the same kind are symptoms of moral forces at work.

WHAT CAN BE DONE BY SOUTHERN LEADERS OF OPINION.

"No doubt the most essential work will have to be done in and by the South itself. And it can be. There are in the South a great many enlightened and high-minded men and women eminently fitted for it. Let them get together and organize for the task of preparing the public mind in the South by a systematic campaign of education, for a solution of the problem in harmony with our free institutions. They will be able to show that it is the interest of the South, as it is that of the North, not to degrade the

laboring force, but to elevate it by making it more intelligent and capable, and that if we mean thus to elevate it, and to make it more efficient, we must not kill its ambitions, but stimulate those ambitions by opening to them all possible opportunities. Their example will dem-



HON. CARL SCHURZ.

onstrate that no man debases himself by lifting up his neighbor from ever so low a level.

WHAT THE NEGRO HAS ALREADY DONE FOR HIMSELF.

"They will also be able to show that, even supposing the average negro not to be able to reach the level of the average white man, the negro may reach a much higher level than he now occupies, and that, for his own good as well as the good of society, he should be brought up to as high a level as he can reach; and further, that the negro race has not only, since emancipation, accumulated an astonishing amount of property,—nearly eight hundred million dollars' worth in farms, houses, and various business establishments,—but he has also produced not a few eminent men, eminent in literature, in medicine, in law, in mathematics, in theology, in educational work, in art, in mechanics,—exceptional colored men, to be sure, but eminent men are exceptional in any race,—who have achieved their successes under conditions so difficult and disheartening as to encourage the belief that they might have accomplished much more, and that many more such men would have come forth had their environment been more just and the opportunities more favorable.

THE APPEAL TO THE SOUTH'S SENSE OF JUSTICE.

"They may expose to the proper pathological light the hysterics which seemed to unsettle the minds of a great many people when the President greeted at his table the same distinguished citizen, who had already been received by Queen Victoria at tea at Windsor Castle, and who is known and admired throughout the civilized world as a man of extraordinary merit, but whose presence at the President's board was frantically denounced as an insult to every white citizen of this republic, and as a dangerous blow at American civilization.

"They will appeal to Southern chivalry,—a sentiment which does not consist merely in the impulse to rush with knightly ardor to the rescue of well-born ladies in distress, but rather in a constant readiness to embrace the cause of right and justice in behalf of the lowliest as well as the highest, in defense of the weak against the strong, and this all the more willingly as the lowliest stand most in need of knightly help; and as in the service of justice the spirit of chivalry will shine all the more brightly the harder the task and the more unselfish the effort.

"In this way, such a body of high-minded and enlightened Southerners may gradually succeed in convincing even many of the most prejudiced of their people that white ignorance and lawlessness are just as bad and dangerous as black ignorance and lawlessness; that black patriotism, integrity, ability, industry, usefulness, good citizenship, and public spirit are just as good and as much entitled to respect and reward as capabilities and virtues of the same name among whites; that the rights of the white man under the Constitution are no more sacred than those of the black man; that neither white nor black can override the rights of the other without eventually endangering his own; and that the negro question can finally be settled so as to stay settled only on the basis of the fundamental law of the land as it stands, by fair observance of that law and not by any tricky circumvention of it."

THE QUESTION OF LABOR IN THE SOUTH.

INDUSTRIAL conditions in the South are still very imperfectly understood north of Mason and Dixon's line. Some of the difficulties encountered by employers of negro labor are graphically set forth by Mr. Robert Adger Bowen in *Guntton's Magazine* for December. After speaking of the poverty so keenly felt even yet among the whites as the heritage of the Civil War, Mr. Bowen remarks on the change in the negro's attitude toward the employing class.

UNRELIABILITY OF THE NEGRO LABORER.

"The South, still essentially agricultural, begins to find herself without a stable lower stratum in her social scale. If, in the homely figure of the section, the bottom rail is not exactly on top, it has become decidedly out of place, and there is no source within reach from which to repair the damage. The negroes employed upon places within a radius of ten miles of a town or good-sized village practically own the owners of those places, and desert them at pleasure, whether they are house servants or field hands. Cooks who have all their afternoons free will announce that they are going to be absent for two or three days to attend a convention. There is no permission asked, the duties of secretary to the convention being paramount to any responsibility to a mere employer, who may consider the position vacant if any objection is raised at all."

It is not only by his shiftlessness and carelessness, as Mr. Bowen proceeds to show, that the negro "paralyzes the South." It is a still more regrettable fact that the "poor white" element will not enter into competition with negro labor.

"PO' WHITE TRASH."

"The daughters of poor, illiterate white men, farmers themselves, or yet lower in the industrial scale and merely hired men at wretched wages and with teeming families,—the daughters of such men scorn to take service in households as nurses, or waitresses, or cooks. That is for the negro. For them it is to remain at home in the overcrowded cottage, slatternly, slovenly, ignorant, half-fed, but at the orders of no one, and bristling with insolence and offended pride at the least suggestion of patronage. The poverty of the negro is scarcely to be compared with the poverty of these despised whites,—the 'po' white trash' of the negro who recognizes a 'quality,' for the negro is rich with a few dollars, and never of the spirit of a pauper even when without. The negroes are becoming an organizing class among themselves. They have 'societies,' clubs, and ever-present churches. The very poor whites have nothing. In the towns and cities the negroes blaze ahead with a glittering display of dress, not always cheap if gaudy, of churches substantial and pretentious. In the towns and cities the poor whites are not; they have not yet got so far. The clubs and societies of the negroes are sometimes greatly to be commended, such as those that buy medicines for their sick, pay their doctors' bills, give them 'plain' or 'fancy' funerals, as the desire may be, and turn over a bonus to the survivor if only a 'plain' funeral has been chosen. There

is nothing like this among the poor whites. Where the negro is imitative, light-hearted, and irresponsible, the poor white is reserved and careworn. Where the negro sparkles with indifference, the poor white glowers in discontent.

"It is thus that the South finds herself without a reliable laboring class. The negro, except in towns where competition affects even his easy-going habits, is not to be depended on; the poor white remains where there is no competition, not even in the way of escape from a poverty as sordid as that of the field negro himself, while between the two there is little to encourage the immigration of more thrifty whites."

Skilled White Labor.

Mr. Bowen's comments apply particularly to the problem of unskilled labor. In *Dixie* (Atlanta, Ga.) for November there are some interesting statements regarding the supply of skilled labor for Southern mills and factories. The writer says:

"In the dwellers of the mountain districts the South has the best labor in the world. Accustomed for generations to hard work; thrifty, ambitious, and hardy, these people are fast proving their right to recognition and public appreciation.

"The cotton mills, and various other industries of the South, are dependent upon this class for labor, and the location of these industries proves the truth of this assertion. Long ago, when industry was first begun in the Southern field, location was not based upon this theory. Mills and factories were built near the centers of population; this with a view of utilizing the unemployed, or the poorly employed, citizens of these peopled centers. But this class was not fit. Weakened by dissipation and generations of shiftless, improper living, the denizens of the city could not be adapted, and gradually the hardy mountaineer supplanted the weaklings. To-day he is master of the situation, and mill building has been transferred to the hill districts.

THE MOUNTAIN WHITE IS COMING TO HIS OWN.

"This is true of all industries employing skilled, or semi-skilled, labor here in the South; the mountaineer supplies the worker's place, and there is no better anywhere. True, these people are not yet as highly skilled as the mechanics of New England, but they are every whit as capable of learning, and will not be long in mastering the various trades and matching the skill and ability of their Northern brothers.

"The 'poor whites' of the South have been long regarded as a hopeless lot, and indeed they are.—that is, the class of poor whites who lived in

the slave-holding districts. They felt themselves superior to the negroes, yet they were without the means of maintaining this dignity. They were neither workers nor masters. Their place in the economic plan was *nil*. Hence, they drifted into shiftless ways and indifference. They became idlers and physical degenerates.

"Not so with the dwellers in the hill districts. They knew nothing of slaves or slavery. They were workers; sturdy, self-sufficient men and women. They were removed from the peopled centers and learned to provide for themselves; they were weavers, metal workers, carpenters, and—yes, they were 'moonshiners,' some of them; but they made their own copper 'stills,' grew their own corn, and brewed their own 'licker.' They could see no harm in that, and as the record goes, it seems that they are slow to change their opinion on this point."

CINCINNATI'S BOSS.

GEORGE B. COX has been dominant in the Republican councils of Cincinnati for twenty years or more. In the light of that fact, it is strange indeed that so little is known of his personality beyond the limits of his own city. We are indebted to Mr. Gustav J. Karger for the first intimate sketch of this giant among Ohio politicians. Mr. Karger's article, which appears in *Frank Leslie's Monthly* for January, shows that the millionaire boss, who claims to have made his money by speculation and defies the "reformers" to point out a case of "shaking down," is a power in politics that Congressmen and Senators have already had to reckon with. This ex-saloon-keeper, according to Mr. Karger, is a masterful man.

"His control of men is marvelous. There is nothing magnetic or hypnotic about him, but he has withal the faculty of creating warm and loyal friendships. His easy, common-sense, placid way of handling questions that irritate, harass, annoy, and worry those who come to seek his advice is so restful and satisfying, that most of those who seek him are content to extinguish their own individuality for the peaceful satisfaction of having another annihilate their troubles seemingly without an effort.

"His good nature is undying; his democracy, broadness, and catholicity indestructible. Any man can get a hearing, be he banker, judge, street-sweeper, or laborer. He remembers names and faces unerringly; his speech is gruff, but his manner pleasant and his disposition sociable. How to get the confidence of the people and how to keep it is the ever-present problem. He reads men intuitively.

"Note well the self-poise, the unconscious strength his answer carries:

"'First, and above all things,' said Mr. Cox, 'I owe my success to the loyalty of my friends.

"'I treat fairly with men at all times, leaving no doubt as to where I stand.

"'I am upright in all my dealings.

"'I use my own judgment as to the class of candidates most acceptable to the people. Whenever I have defaulted in that, I have been unsuccessful.

"'I never allow personal feeling to sway me in a political matter.

"'I have no personal or private interests when it comes to a question of doing that which is to be for the benefit of the party.

"'I always weigh everything submitted to me very carefully, and after doing so, will not change my mind.'"

HEINZE, THE "COPPER KING."

THE great Montana "copper war" has produced at least one hero. In the maze of litigation and "smart" politics, the public has laid hold of the impressive fact that for seven years one young man, single-handed, has persistently fought the copper "trust," backed by the Standard Oil Company, in the courts, in the legislature, on the stump, and in the newspapers, and that, so far as victory may be said to rest with either party to the struggle, up to the present time, it rests with him. This young man, Mr. F. Augustus Heinze, is the subject of a sketch in the January *Cosmopolitan* by Mr. William R. Stewart.

Mr. Heinze is a native of Brooklyn, N. Y., and a graduate of the Columbia School of Mines. He made his first appearance at Butte, Mon., in 1889, as surveyor in a copper mine. After he had been at that work about two years his grandmother died, leaving him \$50,000. Mr. Heinze then went to Germany, where he studied engineering and metallurgy, and after his return to Montana he incorporated the Montana Ore Purchasing Company, with a capital of \$250,000, which erected a smelter.

At this time the Montana copper deposits were attracting the widest attention. When the claims around Butte became so thick that they began to clash, the capitalists and operators interested in them conceived a plan of amalgamation, and the copper trust was formed, under the name of the Amalgamated Copper Company. The capital of the corporation was \$75,000,000, since increased to \$155,000,000.

The organizers of the concern proposed to reduce the wages of the miners from \$3.50 to

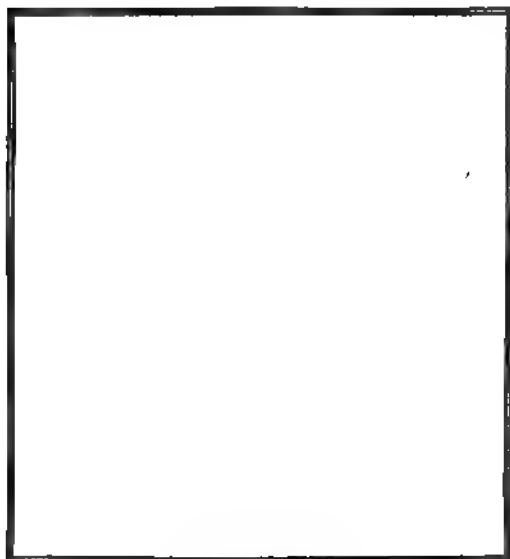
MR. GEORGE B. COX.

"When he has made a political bargain, he keeps it. When the other party fails him, he seeks revenge. If a man has abandoned the organization and is desirous of returning, the doors are not ordinarily closed to him, if his return is calculated to help the organization. Fusion between the Democrats and the Independent Republicans is the menace to his sway. Never allow an Independent prodigal to return is the Cox logic, and the Fusion party is in the very nature of things bound to be a growing party, the 'organization' a moribund one.

"One of his notable characteristics is his imperturbability. Newspaper criticism does not anger him. Bitter and vindictive personal attacks leave him unmoved. He goes to the Blaine Club to hear the returns on election nights, when frequently his political life seems at stake. Cox's manner remains calm, composed, dispassionate. The reports point to victory. Cox shows no elation. Quietly he quaffs his beer or sips his wine. Congratulations and condolences are accepted with apparently equal equanimity. There is no effusiveness, nor even a show of chagrin.

"In the course of a conversation once, I asked him to what he attributes his success as a politician.

\$2 a day and to rearrange the hours of labor. The men were aroused, but the officers of the Standard Oil Company, who were the controlling



MR. F. AUGUSTUS HEINZE.

factor in the copper trust, ignored their representations.

IN POLITICS ON THE TRUST ISSUE.

"Heinze thought he saw his chance. The bones of ambitious concerns that had defied the trust lay bleaching in the private burying-ground of the great monopoly, but did not dismay him. Making the cause of the miners his own, he held out against any reduction in wages, and refused every overture to join the combination. A political campaign was beginning. The Democratic and Labor parties had united against the Republican, a chief issue being the question of the enforcement of the State laws regulating trusts. Heinze plunged into the fight in support of the fusionists. He secured newspapers, hired orators, formed glee clubs which sang stirring odes composed by himself, wrote and scattered pamphlets, and inspired cartoons which made all Montana laugh. He himself went on the platform and proclaimed the issue: 'The people of Montana against the trust.' The 'people' won.

MAKING COPPER PAY DIVIDENDS.

"Four years after the formation of the Montana Ore Purchasing Company he was paying 700 men \$70,000 a month in wages and the stockholders a dividend of 32 per cent per annum.

"After he had safely established himself at Butte, Mr. Heinze invaded the Kootenay, in British Columbia. There was a practically abandoned mining camp known as Rossland, which had been given up as worthless by a number of English and Canadian capitalists. To Mr. Heinze the property seemed of value, and he built the first smelter in Canada, at Trail, eighteen miles distant, and a railroad to connect it. He had a plan to extend this road up through the country, at a cost of about twenty million dollars, but the Canadian Pacific became alarmed and bought him out for a million and a half of dollars.—a handsome profit on his outlay."

Mr. Heinze's remarkable success in developing mines that others had given up as worthless has been somewhat obscured by the litigation that has occupied so much of the time of the Montana courts for the past four years. Mr. Stewart states that within two years Mr. Heinze had developed mining properties which cost him \$1,500,000 into properties valued at from \$20,000,000 to \$30,000,000. The Minnie Healy mine was the most celebrated of these properties,—made doubly famous by the costly attempts to wrest the title from Mr. Heinze and the charges of corruption in connection with the judicial decisions in the matter.

THE EMPLOYERS' ASSOCIATION OF CHICAGO.

THE organization of employers in the city of Chicago for the purpose of resisting the labor unions has had a prominent place in the newspaper reports of recent industrial troubles. The methods of this association are described in the January number of the *World's Work* by Mr. Isaac T. Marcossan, who illustrates his topic by the relation of actual occurrences in connection with the strike at the Kellogg Switchboard Company's works, the lockouts of the laundrymen and candy-makers, and, last of all, the great strike of the street railway men.

Mr. Marcossan sums up the concrete results of the Employers' Association's first year as follows:

- "1. The sympathetic strike has practically been abolished in Chicago.
- "2. The movement of capital from Chicago on account of labor troubles has been checked.
- "3. The effectiveness of the lockout as a means of breaking a strike has been proved.
- "4. The non-union man has been protected in his desire to work wherever he pleases. This is the open shop.
- "5. The employer has been educated to appreciate the value of organization.
- "How was all this accomplished? Simply

by organization. The Employers' Association is a federation of smaller organizations, each one representing a different business. An individual firm cannot join the association. If it is a candy firm, it must join the Manufacturing Confectioners' Association, which is affiliated with the central body. Every affiliated association of employers has a delegate in the board of directors of the central body, and these directors select the executive committee which conducts the affairs of the association. The affiliated associations pay dues according to the number of their employees and the likelihood of having strikes. The firms who employ printers and engravers and other highly skilled workmen pay less than those who hire common laborers. Few of the members of the association know who the other members are; but they know the members of their own particular sub-association. Mr. Job may be called the business agent of the whole federation. The labor union men call him 'the walking delegate of the millionaires' club.'"

THE UNION-LABOR SIDE.

Labor, on the other hand, is more compactly organized in Chicago than ever before. The membership of the Federation of Labor has nearly doubled within twelve months. Mr. Marcossion tried to get a statement from the leaders of organized labor as to the present situation.

"What has been the effect of the Employers' Association on union labor?" I asked Mr. Barney Cohen, president of the Illinois Federation of Labor.

"It is getting the unions closer together," he said.

"Offensively or defensively?" I asked.

"Defensively," he said.

"Two years ago, union labor was on the offensive.

"The difference is important. For instance: the Chicago Metal Trades Association (the association of metal manufacturers which is a member of the Employers' Association) has made an agreement with the men who work at the lathes and the forges that there shall be no limitation of output, no discrimination against the union, and a fair increase in wages.

"Under agreements like this the walking delegate cannot go in and out of the shops as he pleases. If he wants to confer with the members of his union who work there, he must do it elsewhere—at the union. If he has a grievance to present to the employer, he presents it to the secretary of the sub-association, and it is heard by the association, and not by a single employer. All these affiliated associations of employers have

lawyers for secretaries. It is a significant alliance.

"In 90 per cent. of the shops which have been 'opened' by the Employers' Association there has been an increase in wages. During 1903 the total increase of wages in Chicago was \$9,300,000.

"The lesson that the Employers' Association has taught union labor in Chicago is that the isolated firm can no longer be crushed by labor unions. Organization has been met by organization. The end of the year finds two big forces arrayed against each other. On the one side is the Employers' Association, representing \$150,000,000 in capital, 1,000 firms, and 125,000 employees. On the other side is the Chicago Federation of Labor, with 243,000 members, backed up by the American Federation of Labor. There has been less violence since the Employers' Association showed their hand, and more frequent resort to the law as a remedy. The situation is a sort of armed peace."

THE GROWTH OF ADVERTISING.

ADVERTISING is an every-day phenomenon now, and few people take the trouble to inquire into the "why and wherefore" of it, but it does not take a long memory to recall the time when some branches of the business,—or shall we say profession?—were in their infancy. In beginning a series of studies of modern advertising in the January *Atlantic*, Dr. Walter D. Scott harks back to the time when the first advertisement appeared in *Harper's Magazine*, forty years ago, and shows that during the year 1903 more space was devoted to advertising in *Harper's* than the sum total of space for the twenty-four years from 1864 to 1887, inclusive. Up to 1887, indeed, Dr. Scott considers advertising as having been in its swaddling clothes. Leading advertisers say that in comparison with the situation to-day there was no magazine advertising in existence fifteen years ago worthy of the name.

Taking October as the typical month for magazine advertising, Dr. Scott presents a table showing the number of pages devoted to advertisements for the month of October in *Harper's* for each year from the first appearance of advertisements in that magazine to the present time:

1864, 3½; 1865, 2; 1866, 3; 1867, 6; 1868, 7½; 1869, 5½; 1870, 4½; 1871, 3½; 1872, 2; 1873, 1; 1874, 0; 1875, 0; 1876, 0; 1877, 0; 1878, 0; 1879, 0; 1880, 0; 1881, 0; 1882, 1½; 1883, 8½; 1884, 8; 1885, 11½; 1886, 20; 1887, 37; 1888, 54; 1889, 48; 1890, 73; 1891, 80½;

1892, 87; 1893, 77½; 1894, 75¼; 1895, 78¼; 1896, 73; 1897, 80¼; 1898, 81¼; 1899, 106¼; 1900, 97½; 1901, 93½; 1902, 128; 1903, 141.

THE ENORMOUS INCREASE OF PRINTED MATTER.

"There has not only been an increase in the number of advertising pages in the individual publications, but the number of publications has increased enormously of recent years. The increase of population in the United States has been rapid during the last fifty years, but the increase in the total number of copies of the different publications has been many fold greater. Thus, the distribution of the copies of these periodicals to each individual was as follows:

"In 1850, each individual received, on the average, 18 copies from one or more of these periodicals; in 1860, 29; in 1870, 39; in 1880, 41; in 1890, 74; in 1900, 107.

"A significant cause of this increase is the reduction in the subscription price, which is made possible because of the profit accruing to such publications from their advertisements. The total income secured from subscriptions for all these publications last year was less than the amount paid for the advertising pages. We have this current year about twenty thousand periodicals carrying advertisements, each with a constantly increasing number of pages devoted to them and with a rapidly advancing rate secured for each advertisement. In addition to this, the increase is phenomenal in the use of booklets, posters, painted signs, street-car placards, almanacs, and many other forms of advertising. One firm is supposed to have distributed twenty-five million almanacs in a single year.

HUNDREDS OF MILLIONS SPENT ANNUALLY.

"The expense connected with these various forms of printed advertising reaches far into the millions. One authority puts the total annual expense of printed forms of advertising at six hundred million dollars. This sum does not seem to be an exaggeration. Mr. Post spends as much as six hundred thousand dollars annually in advertising his food products. One million dollars was spent last year in advertising 'Force.' Over six hundred thousand dollars is spent annually in advertising Ayer's remedies; and over one million dollars in advertising 'Peruna.'"

A leading soap firm has made a three-years' contract for a single page in each issue of a popular magazine, at the rate of \$4,000 a month, \$48,000 a year, \$144,000 for the full term of three years.

COEDUCATION FROM A EUROPEAN POINT OF VIEW.

"**L**A REVUE" for December 1 has a symposium on the coeducation of the sexes, called forth by the recent attacks on coeducation in this country, and notably by the apparent change of attitude of President Harper, of Chicago University, formerly regarded as one of the leaders of the movement here, which is causing not a little surprise among the champions of feminism in France.

Coeducation, while more tardily introduced into the European universities, is now well established, and has brilliant advocates, as appears from the opinions which M. André Térys has gathered together in this symposium. The most eminent professors and rectors of the leading universities of Europe have contributed to it, including Eduard Meyer, of Berlin; Augustus V. Harcourt, of Oxford; Harald Høffding, of Copenhagen; A. Baret and Emile Faguet, of the Sorbonne; Ch. Gide, of the Faculté de Droit of Paris; Van Hamel, of Groningue, Holland; Dr. F. Waldapfel, of Budapest; Luigi Credaro, of Rome; E. Zollinger, of Zurich, and others. All these men have expressed themselves favorably, at least as regards the relation between the sexes. "The presence of distinguished women in our lecture halls," says M. Croiset, the doyen of the Faculty of Letters of Paris, "contribute to the education of our men students. And we hear from elsewhere that their presence, and the relations which are established between the students of both sexes, especially in the northern universities, exercise the most happy influence on the morals of all. The women gain in strength without losing their grace, and the men are ennobled and purified." Dr. Waldapfel, of Budapest, thinks that while the promiscuous meeting between the two sexes may give rise to innocent flirtations, it may also lead to marriages based on community of interests,—a result which he by no means deplors. The only serious difficulty between the students is noted by Professor Harcourt, of Oxford; his men students complained of the big hats of the women on the front benches, whereupon he requested the women to take the back seats, and harmony was restored.

The opinions are more divided as regards the intellectual advantages of coeducation. Women come, as a rule, not so well prepared, owing to the inferior education of girls, and in consequence the standard of scholarship is in danger of being lowered; the women, moreover, are sometimes treated more leniently at the examinations. Aside from these strictures, all the professors unite in praising the diligence, zeal, and conscientiousness of the women, who are

not distracted by sports, as men are, or by social pleasures. Their memory is more retentive, their knowledge surer, more complete and exact, than that of the men, but they lack independence and depth of thought. They are more receptive than creative.

"But, asks M. Térys, are not these precisely the qualities called for in most of the liberal professions and in government positions? Must a person be a genius in order to be a good teacher, a punctual and methodic official, a conscientious employee, a prudent and circumspect physician? Does genius manifest itself during university studies among men or among women? Genius, at best, is an exception; and the university does not undertake to produce exceptions, 'overmen' and 'overwomen,' so to speak, but average persons of enlightenment and ability. Women possess their share of these average talents, sufficient to contribute to the harmonious equilibrium of society." M. Térys sums up the results of this symposium as follows:

"1. The coeducation of the sexes in the universities of Europe has many advantages, with only a single serious drawback, which will be removed as soon as the two sexes receive equal preparatory instruction.

"2. The women, with their different qualifications and shortcomings, prove themselves during the course of study and at the examinations easily equal—but not inferior—to their masculine fellow-students.

"3. If their university education has so far not yet led to the discovery of any striking genius among women, this education has at least aided a certain number of them in making for themselves an honorable and independent place in society, where they perform excellent service. What more is needed to justify the university education of women? Do these results not imply a victory—instead of a defeat—for the feminists of Europe?"

THE RELIGION OF NAPOLEON I.

A WRITER in the *Quarterly Review*, Mr. J. Holland Rose, examines the religious belief of Napoleon Bonaparte. He started with the impressions gained from his mother's training, which were never lost. When he was Emperor he frequently made the sign of the cross quite involuntarily at the news of any great danger or deliverance. At St. Helena he said, "The first principles that one receives from one's parents, that one takes along with mother's milk, leave an ineffaceable influence." But these early impressions had little effect upon his conduct. In his later years, he remarked that the

happiest day of his life was that of his first communion, which he received on his birthday during his sojourn in Paris; but his overweening egoism was proof against all appeals to the religious sentiments.

A FOLLOWER OF ROUSSEAU.

Rousseau's geometrical designs for the creation of a perfect polity appealed to the methodizing instinct of the young officer, and drew him for many years far away from Christianity. When he was a boy of eighteen he wrote a fierce polemical essay against a Protestant pastor of Geneva, who had criticised Rousseau's social contract. In this essay he declared that human welfare could be attained by the state, the aid of religion being superfluous, if not actually harmful. His enthusiasm for Rousseau, however, perished and left him morally rudderless. His invasion of Italy brought him into close contact with the Papacy, and the discovery that the Pope should be dealt with as if he had 200,000 men under his orders reawakened his respect for the creed of his childhood. This, however, did not prevent him from telling the Mohammedans when he went to Egypt that he had overthrown the Pope, who said that men ought to make war on the Moslems. "Have we not," he said, "for centuries been the friends of the Grand Signor (may God accomplish his desires!) and the enemy of his enemies?"

A CATHOLIC EMPEROR.

It was his visit to Egypt, however, which cured him of Rousseauism. It would not stand the test of actual experience of savagery. "Savage man is a dog," he exclaimed. But although he coquetted with Mohammedanism, he never had the least sympathy with Protestantism, nor did he recognize the right of private judgment which ran counter to all his ideas for the solidarity of the State. When he became Emperor, he founded his rule on Catholicism, because, as he frankly said, the support of the Pope gave him a lever of opinion for the rest of the world.

WHAT NAPOLEON BELIEVED.

His most authentic utterance on the subject of religion is in Montholon's Notes:

"Everything proclaims the existence of God: it cannot be doubted. As soon as I had power I made haste to restore religion. I made use of it as the basis and root; it was in my eyes the support of morality, true principles, and good manners. The restlessness of man is such that he must have this vague and mysterious element that religion presents to him." Some one having remarked that he (Napoleon) might finally become

a devout man, the Emperor replied that he feared not, but that with him unbelief sprang neither from caprice nor from an unbridled spirit. "Man," he added, "ought to asseverate about nothing, especially about what concerns his last moments. . . . To say whence I come, what I am, whither I am going, is beyond my thoughts, and yet the thing exists. I am the watch which exists, and does not know itself. The religious sentiment is so consoling that it is a heavenly boon to possess it."

And on another occasion he said: "One believes in God because everything around us proclaims him, and the greatest minds have believed in him—not only Bossuet, but Newton and Leibnitz. Such, literally, has been the case with me in the progress of my mind. I felt the need of belief, and I believed. But my belief was uncertain after I reasoned. Perhaps I shall believe blindly once again. God grant it. I do not offer resistance—assuredly not; I do not ask for anything better. . . . I have never doubted about God."

A REASON FOR RELIGION.

In the conversations reported by Gourgaud there is little trace of his belief in Christianity. In his last will he made no declaration of faith. He merely warned his son that religion had a power far greater than certain narrow-minded philosophers would allow, that it was capable of rendering many great services to humanity. By standing well with the Pope an influence can be maintained over the conscience of 100,000,000 people.

"It is hard to reconcile the last authenticated words of Napoleon with any heartfelt belief in Christianity. The probability would seem to be that he wavered between materialism and theism, inclining more and more to the latter belief as the years wore on, but never feeling for religion the keen interest that he always manifested for the arts of war and of government. Richly gifted as he was in all that pertained to the life of action, and by no means lacking originality and taste in the spheres of philosophy and literature, his nature was singularly barren on the side of religion. His best certified utterances on this topic are those of the politician rather than of the believer."

THE NEW POPE.

IN the *Pall Mall Magazine*, the Rev. Dr. Alexander Robertson, D.D., gives what he calls "an anecdotal narrative" of the new Pope, the remarkableness of whose career, he says, is nowhere realized more than in his own village, where, on a marble tablet, recently affixed to the house where Sarto was born, may be read these words (in Italian): "A testimony to the world how Christ-God knows how to unite to a poor and holy humility the highest altitude of power and of grandeur."

THE FIGURE "NINE" AND THE POPE.

Dr. Robertson says:

"Speaking of his past life in Venice, just before the Papal election, . . . [Sarto] said: 'My life has been strangely ruled by the figure nine. For nine years I was a schoolboy at Riese; for nine years a student at Padua; for nine years a curate at Tombolo; for nine years a priest at Salzano; for nine years a canon at Treviso; for nine years a bishop at Mantua; and now for nine years I have been Cardinal-Patriarch at Venice, and when I am Pope, as long as God wills, possibly for another nine years.'"

THE FAMILY AT RIESE.

Sarto's father, as messenger of the local town council, was passing poor on 16 cents a day, with a family of eight children. The wife, however, was a tailoress, and often toiled till midnight to add to these slender earnings. The chief, indeed the only, shop in Riese still belongs to the brother-in-law and sister of the Pope. In it, as might be expected, everything is sold, from groceries and clocks to postal cards and ropes.

"THAT RAGAZZINO, GIUSEPPE SARTO."

Even in Sarto's amiable character it seems there were blemishes; and one of these blemishes was a boyish weakness for throwing stones.

"The other day a poor woman, driving in a diligence with a priest, said to him, 'I am very poor, and I have many children; I wish you would take one to train him up as a priest.' 'And perhaps to be Pope,' replied the priest, going on to say, 'Who would have thought that that *ragazzino*, Giuseppe Sarto, who, with his habit of throwing stones, once stoned the carriage of a priest on the Castelfranco road, would have become our Pontifex?'"

SARTO AS POPE.

It is too soon the writer admits, to speak of Sarto as Pope. It is, however, well known how much he felt at first the restrictions involved by his position.

"He set aside the unwritten law that the Pope should not leave his rooms without notice, in order that an escort might be provided. He broke through the custom, observed scrupulously by Leo XIII. and by his immediate predecessors, of dining alone. He has had his sisters at table with him, and many friends besides."

Certain members of the Curia have even mildly remonstrated with him on this score, with the result that on their taking leave the Pope gravely announced the names of those who

were to dine with him next day. He will have his way, the writer says, but only up to a certain point.

WESTERN CIVILIZATION AS A BUDDHIST VIEWS IT.

THE new quarterly period called *Buddhism*, established in Rangoon, publishes in its first number a vehement assertion of the failure of Western civilization. The editor says :

THE SUPERIORITY OF THE EAST.

"If we set aside such general calamities as plagues and famines, there is more real poverty, more starvation, more utter misery in England and America to-day than yet exists in any Buddhist land, where the people are poorer indeed in this world's goods, but richer, incomparably richer, in that trained attitude of mind, born of a deep appreciation of the realities of existence and of a cultured æstheticism, which alone can give rise to true contentment, to mental peace, to a happiness which finds its goal rather in the inalienable delights of the exercise of the higher mental faculties than in the possession of innumerable means of advancing wealth and commerce, of gratifying sense and avarice, of promoting merely bodily comforts.

"And surely herein lies the right aim of all civilization, the true test of the value of any effort after progress, whether it be called civilization, or religion, or philosophy : does that system, in its application, tend to promote the general welfare of man ; to enlarge their hearts with love, to expand their mental horizon ; does it diminish the world's misery, its poverty, its criminality ; does it, in a single word, increase the happiness of those who pursue it ?"

While Western civilization has failed so utterly to increase the happiness of the Western world, there is no prospect of its doing so by its own resources. Its religions and philosophies are, in the opinion of this Eastern writer, perishing before the inexorable tread of the advance of science. If, therefore, salvation is to come to the millions who are perishing under the miseries of Western civilization, it must come by means of religion ; they must embrace Buddhism, which, according to these expositors, is absolutely agnostic on all questions as to the relation of things or the existence of a supreme being, which denies emphatically the immortality of the individual soul, and has no use for prayer. He says :

"Buddhism is a religion of here and now, it is a practical solution of many of the difficulties of life. Unconcerned with the yesterday or to-morrow, its interest is centered on one question only :

What can we do for the attainment of happiness?" Buddhism not only does not seek to answer the eternal problems which vex the minds of Western thinkers, such as the problem of the origin of evil or the freedom of the will. Buddhism "is fixed only on the life we live ; its search only for the truth about existence, the secret of the attainment of good, the way of coming to a true and lasting happiness."

WHAT THE WEST WANTS.

This, he maintains, is exactly what the West wants :

"There is need in the West to-day of a religion which shall contain in the highest degree a philosophy, a system of ontology, founded on reason rather than upon belief ; a religion containing the clearest possible enunciation of ethical principles ; a religion which shall be devoid of those animistic speculations which have brought about the downfall of the hereditary faiths of the West, devoid of belief in all that is opposed to reason ; a religion which shall proclaim the reign of law alike in the world of matter and in the world of mind.

"Such a religion exists—a religion unparalleled in the purity of its ethical teaching, unapproached in the sublimity of its higher doctrine ; a religion which, more than any other in the world, has served to civilize, to uplift, to elevate, to promote the happiness of mankind ; a religion whose proudest boast it is that its altars are unstained by one drop of human blood,—the religion of the law of truth proclaimed by the great sage of India, the knowledge and the practice of which has brought peace into the lives of innumerable men.

"Buddhism, on the other hand, albeit it now numbers five hundred millions of adherents, albeit that its dominion extends among races so far apart as the nomad dwellers of the steppes of Tartary and the inhabitants of tropical Ceylon can, alone among the great religions of the world, make the proud boast that its altars have been from the beginning unstained with human blood,—that not one life has ever been sacrificed in the name of Him who taught love and pity as the chiefest law of life. What good Buddhism has done in the world,—and it has been the redemption of the savage tribes of Tibet and Tartary, it has augmented the immemorial civilization of China, it has ennobled the national life and nature of the great people of Japan,—what good it has done has been good unalloyed ; and we think that the fact that its dominion over its adherents has been so great for good that they have never fallen into the dark abyss of intolerance, have never dared employ the mas-

ter's name as excuse for their own cruelty, is perhaps the best proof of all the perfection of its ethical teaching, of its true value to humanity, its true power as a civilizing agent."

It will be interesting to see how this bold assertion of the infinite ethical superiority of Buddhism is regarded by the Western world.

AN ANCIENT OBSERVATORY IN INDIA.

THE accompanying photographic view of the observatory at Jeypore, India, appears in the December number of *Popular Astronomy*, having been furnished by Miss Etta Moulton, a graduate of Carleton College, Minn., now a missionary in India. Facts regarding this observatory, as obtained by Miss Moulton, are given in the following paragraphs:

The Observatory at Jeypore was built by the celebrated royal astronomer, Jey Sing. It is not under cover. The instruments have been allowed to get much out of repair, and many of them are now quite useless, it being impossible even to guess what purpose they served in the

wonderfully accurate observations and calculations of their inventor; but dials, gnomons, quadrants, etc., still remain of great interest to astronomers.

The buildings were erected by Jey Sing II., Rajah of Jeypore, in 1137 A.H., or 1724 A.D. He was an engineer, mathematician, and an astronomer. He constructed on his own plan observatories at Jeypore, Benares, Ujjain, Delhi, and Muttra.

Jey Sing was chosen by Mahammad Shah to reform the calendar. From his astronomical observations tables were constructed which were more correct than those of De la Hire.

One instrument in the picture is the mural quadrant. It is a wall 11 feet high, and 9 feet, 1½ inches broad, in the plane of the meridian; by this means are ascertained the sun's altitude and zenith distance and its greatest declination, and the latitude of the place. There are two large circles,—one of stone and the other of cement,—and a stone square, used, perhaps, for ascertaining the shadow of the gnomon, and the measurement of the azimuth. Next the Yan-

tracament will be seen, the wall of which is 36 feet long and $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet broad, and is set in the plane of the meridian. One end is 6 feet $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches high, and the other 22 feet $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches in height; and it slopes gradually up, so as to point to the north pole. There are also a double mural quadrant, an equatorial circle of stone, a *chakroyantra*, between two walls (used in finding the declination of a planet or star), and a *Digansayantra*, to find the azimuth of a planet or star.

MOMMSEN, THE PRINCE OF MODERN HISTORIANS.

THE English reviews for December devote a good deal of space to the late historian of Rome. Mr. Sidney Whitman, who knew the historian personally, contributes a very interesting paper to the *Contemporary Review*. He describes him as "of medium height, of slight figure; his face clean-shaven and full of wrinkles, set off by a head full of long silvery hair. A pair of dark illuminatingly expressive eyes peered through his spectacles."

MOMMSEN AND NAPOLEON III.

Mr. Whitman tells the following tale of Mommsen as unpaid proofreader to the French Emperor:

"Napoleon caused the history of the princely family of Borghese to be written, and he again approached Mommsen and asked him whether he would consent to revise the proofs. This Mommsen agreed to do, but here again he declined to accept the 50,000 francs which the French Emperor had set apart for him in return for his services. The soul of the German professor stood above cash payment, even from an emperor. He had been too busy with the dust of whole dynasties of Cæsars to attach much importance to the favor or the rewards of monarchs."

Mommsen's reputation in Italy was so great that the reply "Sono Theodor Mommsen" once disarmed a band of brigands who were about to rifle the professor's pockets, the brigand chief saying that he would scorn to rob any one who had done so much for Italy's renown.

MOMMSEN AND ENGLAND.

Mommsen told Mr. Whitman that the unpopularity of England in Germany was not due directly to the Boer War; it was partly a reaction against a former exaggerated German admiration for everything English, and partly the inevitable outcome of long-standing political and sentimental grievances. Mommsen did not cherish the colonial ambitions which are often at-

tributed to German professors; he took a black view of the future of Austria, which would become "The Turkey of Europe;" and regarded German municipal government as something reflecting honor on German civilization.

A German of the Past.

The president of Trinity College contributes a brief article on Mommsen to the *Independent Review*. The great historian was, he says, the product of a Germany which seems vanishing before the advance of manufactures and millionaires.

"To this Germany Mommsen belonged; and he linked it with the imperial Germany of to-day. He perpetuated its best traditions in his simplicity of life, his ceaseless industry, but also in his keen, constant interest in the problems of the day. Hardly less characteristic is the poetic feeling which again and again lightens up the pages of his most severely scientific writings. In all ways he was a worthy descendant of the great scholars and teachers who helped to place Germany in the van of European thought."

MOMMSEN ON GIBBON.

Dr. Pelham cites the following interesting judgment of Gibbon, sent by Mommsen during the Gibbon centenary of 1894:

Acknowledging in the highest degree the mastery of an unequalled historian, speaking publicly of him, I should be obliged to limit in a certain way my admiration of his work. He has taught us to combine Oriental with Occidental lore; he has infused in history the essence of large doctrine, and of theology; his "solemn sneer" has put its stamp upon those centuries of civilization rotting and of humanity decaying into ecclesiastical despotism. But his researches are not equal to his great views; he has read up more than a historian should. A first-rate writer, he is not a plodder.

His Defects as a Historian.

Turning to the *Monthly Review* article by Dr. Emil Reich, we find Mommsen criticised quite as severely as he had criticised Gibbon. Dr. Reich warns us against overestimating the method of historical study of which Mommsen was the most illustrious representative, which method increases the number of books of a purely archæological interest rather than augments the amount of real historical knowledge. He argues that Roman history could not be written by a German:

"For the Roman world within the times of the republic, or in the times of the empire, was so utterly different from anything that had developed or grown up in Germany, that no diligence in research, nor any philosophical effort of the self-sustained mind, could enable a Ger-

man to write up events utterly different in character and drift from those of his own country and time."

Every one of Mommsen's great treatises was rather a collection of monographs than a work giving a direct and full insight into the working principles of Roman institutions. Mommsen's authority has sterilized the study of the history of Rome; and the scholars of the world are under his hand. Mommsen had neither the passion nor the highest capacity of the historian proper.

MOMMSEN AS A WORKER.

The amount of work accomplished by Mommsen may be judged from the following:

"In his works, which already, in 1887, counted 949 numbers, representing 6,824 folio pages, 1,402 quarto, and 19,319 octavo pages, the great scholar investigated all the problems of Roman political history, chronology, numismatics, law, and religion."

VICTOR EMMANUEL III.

ONE of the most interesting articles in the December *Contemporary Review* is that which "Ivanovich" contributes concerning the King and Queen of Italy. It is a pleasant and, on the whole, favorable character sketch. Of the King, "Ivanovich" says:

"Victor Emmanuel III. is not more gifted than his father, grandfather, and great-grandfather with artistic sensibilities, and he is more the descendant of the last in his love of order, his mathematical preciseness of mind, his conception of duty, and his standard of personal deportment, than of Humbert, or of *Il Re Galantuomo*. But, like his grandfather, he has an eye for the beauty of a horse, and his stables are the best appointed of any in Europe. The pomps of the Catholic Church scarcely impress him, and he could never take in the works of the great musical composers of Italy. His father, in the way of music, only cared for the rattat-too of the drum, his grandfather for the French fanfare, and Charles Albert for the music of the cannon, which woke him up well and pulled him out of himself.

"He is extremely *irredentist*, but after the fashion of his forefathers, who sought to eat the Italian artichoke leaf by leaf. His mind from infancy has been imbued with the history of the House of Savoy, which he regards as a predestined house, and he is on the watch for circumstances favorable to an *irredentist* policy, with the help of France and Russia, or of Germany, or even the assassins of Belgrade. He remembers how an ancestor wore the crown of Cyprus, and that the Venetian Cornara held that island, and

that Venice, to draw it from the ownership of Catherine Cornara, made her their Doge. I do not imagine that Victor Emmanuel thinks of adding Cyprus to his crown, so long as it is well governed, or Great Britain (retaining her present strength) cares to keep it. He would be more keen on the recovery of Nice and Savoy. In his opinion, the territory of the world being incapable of increase, the powers will always have to be vigilant conservators of their real estate, and lose no chance of acquiring more. He therefore attaches great importance to military competence."

DOMESTICITY ENTHRONED.

And of the court and Queen:

"The former court of Italy reproaches the present with too domestic taste. Queen Margaret played the part of a mainspring in social, literary, artistic matters, in giving industrial impulses by setting fashions, in patronizing the movement for higher education for the daughters of the upper classes, and in bringing into elementary schools for girls teachers of small handicrafts. She acted so smoothly that her hand scarcely appeared in the many affairs to which she turned it. She reconciled the upper classes of those different Italys, the great cities, to unity under the House of Savoy. The old court speak of the King and Queen as preferring the small apartments to the large, and conforming to bourgeois ideals. This is unjust, for the young Queen appears nobly magnificent on gala nights at the opera, when she receives imperial or royal visitors, and on state or stately occasions. She has become a marvelously handsome woman, and does not seem too tall under the high-pitched ceilings of the Italian palaces."

THE KING AND HIS VISITORS.

The following observations of the King's demeanor are probably based upon personal experience:

"The private apartments of the King of Italy are on the second floor of the Quirinal looking toward the Barberini Palace. A visitor is taken up a private stair by General Brusati, or some other aide-de camp in waiting, and shown to a seat in an anteroom, where he awaits his turn for an audience. When it comes round, the general opens a door, bows low, and the person to be next received enters a small room, with white walls, decorated with eighteenth-century gold moldings and furnished with red chairs in gilded frames. The King is standing. He has a military air, and the habits of mental tension and of the habitual strain on his power of insight to read what is hidden in the recesses of

the brain are stamped on his countenance. He moves easily, points with a gentlemanly and polite gesture to a chair, sits down himself, and opens the conversation also with ease. As he does not smoke he has not the resource of breaking the ice with a cigar when he knows the visitor well and suspects that the matter which brought him may be embarrassing for both. The King made up his mind when a mere lad not to smoke, because he saw that the abuse of the cigar had had a bad effect on his father's health. He is a good linguist, though he speaks French less well than the Queen, and is familiar with all the dialects of Italy. He is apt to speak to French visitors in the third person, a courteous Italian custom in the higher classes."

"Ivanovich" says that the King is terribly afraid of being laughed at, and never receives a stranger of distinction without learning of his pursuits and reading up subjects connected with them.

"He abhors chatter, seeks to draw out those to whom he grants audiences on the subjects which he thinks they best understand, and confesses that he likes people to talk 'shop.' Osio taught him to take his life in his hand."

THE STORY OF HIS MARRIAGE.

His devotion to domestic life is a marked feature in his character. His family life is beyond reproach; he is economical and a good manager; and, finally, he married for love, under what circumstances "Ivanovich" retails in the following passage:

"The Prince of Naples went to Venice. He saw there a girl, simple and gracious, sweetly serious, entirely free from the coquetry of which he had seen too much at Naples, tall, slim, with a figure that would have matched those of the caryatides of the Erechtheum on the Acropolis, and with amber complexion and eyes just as dark as his nurse's. They differed greatly, however, from the ardent eyes of Maria Maista, which expressed passion only; those of Helen of Montenegro expressed sentiment and pensiveness; they had the softness of velvet, set round with glowing embers, and they could beam like the sun's rays in spring. She spoke French like a Parisian, had played the violin by ear when a child, and had perfected this talent under a professor, who said the year before that she had no further need for his lessons. The young princess went on to St. Petersburg. The Czar Alexander died; the Princess of Hesse decided to enter the Orthodox Church, and the new Czar married her. Helen's relations could no longer hope to see her Empress of Russia; but as she

had become enamored of Italy, she did not share their disappointment, for something whispered to her of the impression she had made at Venice, and she preferred the orange groves along the Mediterranean and the interesting or enchanting cities of Italy to the birch and pine woods on the shores of the Baltic. She scarcely regretted losing the imperial crown of Russia. It is not true that she conveyed indirectly to the Prince of Naples her sentiments, hopes, and fears, by means of poems published in the *Nadalia*, a Russian literary review; but a sweet sonnet on Venice, fresh as a summer's morning, from her pen appeared in that periodical. Venice appeared to her the city of poetry and romantic love, and the Prince of Naples read this sonnet, which somebody sent him from Lucerne, with an Italian translation. It contained no declaration, such as that given in *La Vision*,—attributed, but wrongly, to Helen, and given in the same review. The Queen of Italy has a delicate touch, vibrating sensibilities, ease, and a musical ear in writing poetry. She is, in all else, free as a poetess from affectation."

FACTS ABOUT THE METROPOLITAN RAILWAY OF PARIS.

THE rapid-transit problems of New York and London have their counterpart in Paris, where the Metropolitan Railway system is working transformations quite as wonderful as those resulting from the installation of London's "Tuppenny Tube" and New York's great subway has its parallel in many features of construction. Many interesting facts relating to the Paris enterprise are given in an article contributed by M. Paul Lethéaule to the *Engineering Magazine* for December.

The undertaking was viewed, at first, with such indifference by contractors that the city was unable to obtain bids on the work and had to build and complete the first section itself. After that, however, interest was aroused, competitive bids tendered, and contracts awarded for the rest of the work at an actual saving to the city from the original estimates of cost.

MOTORS AND CARS.

Trains are operated in sections of four and eight cars; in the former case, the forward car is the only motor car. In eight-coach trains, both the forward and rear cars are motor cars, and can be operated separately or in series from the one controller. On some of the lines it is necessary to run trains with motor cars at both ends, owing to lack of facilities for switching at terminal stations. Each motor car carries two

motors that can be coupled in parallel. In the case of a double-ended train, or where two motor cars are to be controlled simultaneously, these coupled motors can be operated in series by means of a connecting cable carried right through the train, and the reversing switches can be electrically controlled from a distance, as in the Thomson-Houston multiple units. If it is desired to use only one of the motor cars, the other can be readily disconnected, and the two motors of the one car thrown into series-parallel.

The rolling stock itself is extremely light, and all carried on single trucks. The motor cars are all second-class carriages. The trailers, on the other hand, are divided into first and second-class coaches, identical in construction, but differing in the appointments of their interior decoration. These cars are 8.70 meters long, 2.40 meters wide, and 2.30 meters high, with ten rows of cross seats set back to back, with the exception of the two end rows. A longitudinal aisle cuts through these rows, leaving on one side ten rows of single seats 0.45 meters wide, and on the other ten rows of double seats 0.92 meters wide, giving a total seating capacity of

thirty passengers. There are two sliding doors on each side of the car, one serving as an entrance and the other as an exit.

LIGHT AND HEAT.

The cars are electrically lighted by six incandescent lamps in the ceiling and by four corner clusters. It is proposed to heat the cars electrically, and also to operate electrically a device for indicating the next station ahead. Neither of these improvements has yet been installed, however.

The temperature in the tunnel during the coldest season never falls below 10° centigrade (50° Fahrenheit); therefore, in view of the short rides, there is no real necessity for heating the cars.

The subway is lighted throughout by electricity. Clusters of five 16-candle power lamps are spaced at intervals of about forty feet on stations and platforms, and at intervals of about eighty feet in the tunnel proper.

LOW RATES OF FARE.

The fares charged on the Metropolitan Railway are francs 0.25 [5 cents] in first-class and

francs 0.15 [3 cents] in second-class from any one point to another on the system. Up to 9 a.m., the second-class excursion tickets are sold at francs 0.20 [4 cents], the return ticket being good for the return trip at any time of the day or night.

These rates of fare, while comparatively cheap for long rides, are, of course, high for short distances; this, especially in the case of line 2, permits of a very appreciable competition from the surface road operated by the Compagnie des Omnibus, whose La Vilette-Trocadéro line, operated by steam, parallels the Metropolitan Railway's branch.

The fares charged on the surface road are francs 0.15 [3 cents] in first-class, and francs 0.10 [2 cents] in second class, with an extra fare of francs 0.05 [1 cent] for long distances.

THE GLASS INDUSTRY IN FRANCE.

M. BENOIST continues, in the first November number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, his series on great industries with a paper on the glass works of France. These were anciently established in the near neighborhood of forests for the sake of the fuel. The figures for 1896—which are, apparently, the latest available—show that the industry then employed 40,700 persons, and that there were eighteen works employing more than 500 persons each. M. Benoist mentions an interesting factor which tends to preserve the industry in its old home, in spite of the increased use of coal instead of wood—namely, the hereditary aptitude shown by the families of the workmen and workwomen. And this brings us to the question of child labor. Modern sentiment has endeavored to check the employment of very young children, but employers and inspectors alike are apt to be deceived by false statements of age made by the parents of the children. Trade writers have declared that the industry is really very healthy, but statistics show that glass-workers do not live as long as the general average of the nation. Wages, however, are high; thus, the most highly skilled make \$1.37 a day, while foremen make as much as \$2. These figures represent a considerable advance on what was paid some thirty-five years ago. The whole industry appeared curiously ancient and primitive to M. Benoist's eye; he did not find in it, as in so many other industries, that constant application of mechanical improvement in order to economize the human material at work. On the contrary, there seemed to him to have been but little progress in that respect since the days of the old Egyptians.

THE ANCESTRY OF MAN.

IN the numbers of the *Naturwissenschaftliche Rundschau* of the last of October and early November, the most prominent place is taken by a lecture that was delivered by Dr. Schwalbe before the Society of German Naturalists and Physicians at Cassel on September 23.

The subject is the early history of man. It is a review from the standpoint of an anatomist, of our present knowledge of the ancestry of man. He goes over quite carefully the evidence in regard to prehistoric man, and his results are interesting as summing up what is now believed in regard to this important topic. He takes up the matter in a good deal of detail, and offers some new criticisms of the commonly quoted proofs of the existence of a prehistoric man of a low grade of development, or of a being who was the ancestor of man, but so different that he could not be called man.

He considers all living men so closely related to each other that they must have a common origin. All men of the present time, without doubt, belong to one species. The Neanderthal man, however, whose remains were discovered something like a half-century ago, he says is of a different species, basing this belief on some studies of the past year which have thrown additional light on the anatomical characteristics of this ancient man. This man of the quaternary period he considers as deserving the name of *Homo primigenius*, and is specifically distinct from the modern species of *Homo sapiens*. The remains found in Spy, Belgium, in 1886, and in Krapina, Croatia, in 1899, he assigns to the same species of *Homo primigenius*. This species of man lived in Europe, but he does not consider that the evidence of his presence in America is very strong.

Pithecanthropus erectus, the skull of which was found in Java by Dubois, he considers, as do most other geologists, the real missing link, and goes into some detail to show how it differs from man and the anthropoid apes. He then discusses the relationships of the lemurs, the anthropoid apes, *Pithecanthropus erectus*, and man. The common root of these forms must be well back in geological time, for he considers that man was differentiated in the early tertiary. The question, however, of the actual phylogenetic history of these forms he leaves somewhat in doubt, expressing the hope that the discoveries of the near future may throw some light on it.

The Original Home of Man.

In connection with the above article, a good deal of interest is attached to an address by Dr. Wilser at the same meeting at Cassel on the

original home of man. This is the most prominent article in the *Naturwissenschaftliche Wochenschrift* of November 1.

Premising that man's nearest living relatives are the anthropoid apes, and that the missing link connecting him with lower forms was found in the discovery of *Pithecanthropus erectus* in Java, he takes up and discusses the various ideas as to the locality from which the human race started. He says that there has been an idea that because these apes, which are our nearest living relatives, live now in Africa and Asia not far from the Tropic of Cancer, man must have originated from these same regions. But he says it is not where animals are living now, but where we find their fossil representatives that we must suppose them to have originated. "As in the desert, even when the wind has covered all other traces of a caravan, its way is marked by the bones of those who have fallen by the way."

The remains of apes have been found in Europe belonging to an earlier time than those of Asia and Africa, and Europe is nearer the original home. Man, with the other mammals, originated in the Arctic regions, and the animals spread in successive waves from that center over the earth. *Pithecanthropus* belongs to a wave which passed from the northern center earlier than that which left *Homo primigenius*. It is not Australia or South America that is the home from which man and his ancestors started, but the regions around the North Pole.

It is of great practical importance to determine the original home of man, for by this means, and by this means only, can we explain the distribution of the races of men.

THE NATIVE RACES OF RHODESIA.

DR. LOIR, in *Revue Générale des Sciences* for November 15, 1903, furnishes a very readable article on the indigenous peoples of Rhodesia. The article is excellently illustrated, and, while somewhat sketchy, as any general treatment of such a large subject must be of necessity, yet gives a very clear idea of these people and their general character and conditions.

The indigenous population of South Africa belongs to three distinct branches, the Bushmen, the Hottentots, and the Bantus or Kaffirs. The Bushmen are a pygmy race, very low in the scale of development, and with little in the way of possibilities of improvement. They do not build homes, do not till the soil, and live largely on the products of the chase. They do not count beyond three, anything above that being

simply "many." They have little in the way of religion, and no tribal government. Yet they are sufficiently advanced to have some notion of art, for they paint on wood and stone, showing some knowledge of perspective and some accurate taste in the use of colors. Probably they are an older race than the Hottentots and Bantus, and it is supposed that they are a remnant of the dwarf races that once lived in Europe, but disappeared about the year 1000.

The Hottentots resemble the Bushmen in the color of the skin, but are larger. They live in villages, and readily take up the habits of the whites. They have some notion of a deity, and in the towns have frequently adopted the Protestant religion. They take readily to the vices of the whites, particularly in the use of alcoholic liquors.

The Bantus are the highest race of South Africa. They are intelligent and readily adopt the ways of civilized peoples. The mountain Bantus live on the summits of the hills, or "kopjes," where they have probably been driven by their stronger neighbors. They are of gentle disposition, but inclined to keep out of the way of the whites. They are much less intelligent than those living nearer the coast. The coast tribes are men of large size, well built, and intelligent, and are the warlike peoples who have made so much trouble for the European invaders. The Zulus are, perhaps, the most noted tribe of this race. The language of the Bantus is idiomatically the same in all the tribes, but has many different dialects. It is easily learned, and English women soon acquire sufficient facility to talk to their servants in the native tongue. The Kaffirs, as a rule, get the vices of civilization rather than the desirable things, for, like all similar peoples, it seems easy for them to acquire bad habits.

Before the English domination the Bantus had a somewhat elaborate system of government, and in the villages a kind of court to render justice between man and man. They live in huts which are collected in villages, the individual homes being arranged so as to enclose a place for their domestic animals. Their provisions are placed in specially constructed elevated huts so as to be protected from the attacks of white ants. It is the woman who does all the work both within and without the hut. The Bantus are the most advanced of all the negroes of Africa, and have a large share of mechanical skill. They are carpenters and tailors, they make pottery, and they have learned the art of manufacturing and working iron. They reduce the iron ore in large clay pots with a primitive form of bellows, beat it out with stones, and

from it manufacture their weapons of war. Curiously enough, while they work iron and copper, they have never mined the gold which exists in their country. Their kraals, in some cases, are situated immediately over the ancient gold mines of the Phœnicians,—mines which are probably very rich, but which have never been worked at all by the Kaffirs. In these mines are found the utensils and tools of the Phœnicians, just as they were abandoned in ancient times, the Kaffirs never having interested themselves in them.

The Kaffirs are fond of personal adornment, and both males and females sometimes wear elaborate headdresses which greatly increase, apparently, their height. Their every-day dress, however, is extremely limited in amount, a single small piece of cloth or the skin of an animal serving for the whole attire of a man.

THE FORMS OF CELLS.

IN the last number of *Biologisches Centralblatt*, Dr. N. K. Koltzoff, of the University of Moscow, has an article which adds a new item to our knowledge of the complex mechanism known to biologists as the cell, which is now considered to be the unit of structure, the smallest mass of living matter that is able to exist by itself.

As cells are found crowded together to form the tissues of the body, the great variety of angular shapes which they present appears to be the result of their mutual pressure against each other; but there are many round cells, and many more that become round if they are freed from the pressure of surrounding cells, as may easily be seen by clipping off a fragment of a clam's gill, and then tearing it apart in water with fine needles until the cells are separated. They change from rectangular and spindle-shaped to spherical, and since they are no longer moored to underlying cells, swim around by means of the cilia that naturally serve merely to keep a current of fresh water moving over the gills.

Fish eggs, frogs' eggs, and others that are not surrounded with a hard shell are spherical, and apparently respond to the same laws of pressure as liquids, for drops of water, drops of oil in water, etc., are also spherical.

But some free cells are not spherical. The red corpuscles of the blood are not, and the red corpuscles vary in shape in the blood of different animals,—a fact that has often been found to

be of the greatest importance in trials for murder. The eggs of certain wheel-animalcules that inhabit the water are crescent-shaped, although, as far as can be seen, there is not so much as a surrounding membrane to keep them in that shape.

There is a whole legion of one-celled animals that present as many vagaries of form as the fabled inhabitants of the moon. One is shaped like a cornucopia most of the time, although it occasionally draws up into a ball as it goes whirling through the water. Another is egg-shaped, with its mouth on one side; another has the form of a morning-glory; another consists of a long, slender pedestal with a sphere at the top, from which it pushes out little knobbed spikes of protoplasm until it looks like a microscopic pinball. All consist of a single cell, and none of them have any trace of skeleton or shell.

These observations led the writer to investigate cells and endeavor to find out by what means they retained shapes so different from the globular form which, as semi-fluid bodies, would be most natural for them.

In examining the red corpuscles of the salamander, Prof. F. Menes found a circular thread that was firm and elastic, which he thought accounted for the variation of the corpuscle from the globular form.

The writer placed cells in a dozen different kinds of chemical solutions of varying densities. He found that the form of the cell changed according to the osmotic power of the fluid, but was entirely independent of its chemical nature. The same kind of cell would assume a definite form in a solution of definite strength and a different form for a different strength of the same solution. The same kind of cell would assume a similar form in a different chemical solution provided the solution had the same osmotic power, and a cell would resume its former shape if changed into a fluid of the right osmotic power.

In all cases where a cell varies from the globular form, elastic structures were found to be present. Elastic fibers play a very important rôle. Sometimes there are elastic spirals around the margin of the cell, sometimes there is a basket-work of these elastic threads that form a sort of framework for the cell, and in other cases there is a minute rod running through the middle of the cell. He found these elastic structures in all cells of permanent form, but he did not find them in those of varying form, such as the amoeba, and believes they are lacking in such cells.

THE PERIODICALS REVIEWED.

HARPER'S MAGAZINE.

IN the January *Harper's* appears Prof. Thomas R. Lounsbury's second paper on "Is English Becoming Corrupt?" James Gibson Johnson, obtaining his information from a diary of Captain Gibson, one of the participants, tells the exciting but up to this time neglected story of the siege and capture of Louisburg, on Cape Breton Island, in 1745. The story includes such varied characters as Roger Wolcott, Whitefield, the Wesleyan preacher, and Commodore Warren.

AMERICA'S UNCONQUERED MOUNTAIN.

Dr. Frederick A. Cook, who with a small party tried recently to ascend Mount McKinley, in the Alaskan range, tells the story of the attempt. The outfit the party carried is interesting. "Our mountaineering equipment," says Dr. Cook, "was very simple and extremely light. As food for each man,—pemmican, 1½ pounds per day; zwieback, 4 ounces per day; sweetened condensed milk, 4 ounces per day; tea. We had also a small quantity of cheese and some erbswurst; both of these, however, proved unsatisfactory. Pemmican, bread, tea, and condensed milk seemed to satisfy all our wants. For fuel we had wood alcohol, to be burned in aluminum stoves, and also petroleum, to be burned in a primus stove. The latter proved by far the more successful. We carried no dishes, except a spoon and a few cups, pocket-knives, and one kettle, in which we melted snow to get water for our tea.

"There was nothing unusual about our clothes, except a large eider-down robe (the down attached to the skin of the birds). The robe was so arranged that it could be made into a sleeping-bag and an overcoat. Our tent was made of silk, after a special pattern which I devised for polar work. It was large enough for four men, and weighed less than three pounds. Each man carried a regular Alpine axe, and in his rucksack he was to carry his sleeping-bag, glacier-rope made of horse-hair, provisions, and a general outfit for a ten days' stay in the mountains. This weighed forty pounds."

Prof. Ernest Rutherford, of McGill University, writes, with undoubted scientific accuracy, of the "Disintegration of the Radioactive Elements," describing the different properties of uranium, thorium, and radium.

THE CENTURY MAGAZINE.

THE opening article of the January *Century* is a description, by Othon Guerlac, of the workings of the French Chamber of Deputies, "The Storm Center of French Politics." The drawings of André Castaigne which accompany the article are particularly vivid and real. The third installment of the unpublished Thackeray letters, charming in the new view they give of the man, appear in this number. Sylvester Baxter describes, with the help of photographs, the remarkable palace of art which Mrs. Gardner has recently completed in Boston. The building is "Italian in all its essentials," and yet as a whole it is "a beautiful composite." Within are gathered art treasures from nearly every part of the world, arranged with such beauty and by so sure an art sense that "its charm has the intimacy

that proceeds from the consummate expression of a temperament for which the love of the beautiful is a supreme joy."

A TRAVELER IN TIBET.

The Rev. Ekai Kawaguchi, a Japanese priest of Buddha, tells the story of some of his recent remarkable travels through Tibet. He went to study Buddhism and to search for some religious manuscripts which he believed were in Tibet. His picture of the young Dalai Lama of Lhasa trying to better Tibetan civil service and to choke out sports and politics is interesting. Speaking of the people, he says:

"The citizens of Lhasa are the most affable in disposition and polished in manner and speech of all Tibetans. They are very vindictive and revengeful, concealing anger, however, until there is an opportunity to wreak vengeance to their heart's content. Both sexes are very extravagant in dress, and both decorate the ear-lobes with turquoise and gold trinkets. The women wear coral and turquoise ornaments in their hair, and also pearl and amber-set headgear. Their other ornaments are gold neck-rings, rings of silver on the right arm and of conch-shell on the left, gold finger-rings, etc. Government officials ordinarily wear silk or wool cloth of maroon color, but on ceremonial occasions the color is pure yellow. The more pretentious people and many of the common people wear maroon color usually, but the lower classes wear gray-colored sheep's-wool cloth of rough native make. Some wear shoes of Chinese pattern, but the majority wear those of native style covered with sheep's-wool cloth."

Authoritative articles on radium are contributed by Prof. Ernest Merritt, of Cornell, and by Madame Curie, the joint discoverer of the new element. Frank P. Sargent, Commissioner-General of Immigration, gives some striking facts showing "The Need of Closer Inspection and Greater Restriction of Immigrants." Nearly 9,000 people were debarred from June, 1902, to June, 1903, while more than 850,000 were received after mingling with the convicts and diseased people who were refused. Jack London's new novel, "The Sea-Wolf," begins in this number.

SCRIBNER'S MAGAZINE.

BESIDES the first installment of Captain Mahan's history of "The War of 1812" in the January *Scribner's*, there is a strikingly interesting description, by F. S. Dellenbaugh, of a comparatively unknown and wonderful valley in southern Utah, which extends back of a giant peak of rock, the Great Temple of the Virgin. The Mormons have settled one end of the valley, which is varied with fertile fields and picturesque cañons filled with the health and wonderful colors and forms of untamed nature at high altitudes. M. H. Spielmann contributes an appreciation of the art of Frank Brangwyn.

THE GOVERNMENT'S SCIENTIFIC WORK.

S. P. Langley, secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, describes in careful detail the various branches of

the scientific work done by the Government at Washington. Showing first how it is divided necessarily under the various departments, detailing the scientific investigation done in the Treasury, War, Navy, Interior, Agriculture, and Commerce departments, Mr. Langley outlines the work of the Patent Office, of the Geological Survey, whose engineers have added greatly to the knowledge of the country's coast line and interior during the last few years, and of the adjacent Weather Bureau; the achievements in the Naval Observatory, in the National Botanic Garden, the investigations in laboratories and throughout the country, of agricultural conditions, the studies and work of the Fish Commission, of the duties of the Bureau of Standards, the Marine Hospital Service, the Bureau of Labor, and other scientific agencies at work for the Government. He also traces the history of the Smithsonian Institution and the multifarious things it is doing for "the increase and the diffusion of knowledge."

Robert Grant's new novel, "The Undercurrent," begins in this number.

McCLURE'S MAGAZINE.

ASIDE from Mr. Carl Schurz's paper on "Can the South Solve the Negro Problem?" which we quote from in the "Leading Articles of the Month," there is in the January *McClure's*, besides a long list of short fiction, an article by A. W. Rolker, reciting many interesting surgical operations done upon wild beasts in captivity. The current chapter of Miss Ida Tarbell's "History of the Standard Oil Company" deals with Mr. Rockefeller's successful fight for the seaboard pipe lines.

TUNNELING OUT OF LIBBY PRISON.

James M. Wells, a lieutenant in the Michigan cavalry, tells the exciting story of his escape from Libby Prison during the Civil War. Describing the prison, he says:

"For the first three months, many of the prisoners lay on the floor without a thing in the world either over or under them, with nothing but their boots on which to lay their heads at night. Among the twelve hundred men confined there at the time, all officers in our service, of greater or less rank, were represented almost every trade and profession. Many were masters of science, art, and literature whose names were not unknown to fame. There were preachers, painters, sculptors, orators, and poets. Many were the curious and beautiful designs wrought from beef bones saved up for the purpose, after the bones had first been picked to the very marrow by our hungry men.

"The pencil and pen sketches, drawn on whatever even surface might be found, often showed evidences of genius and a cultivated hand. Among those more or less famous in music I remember one of the Lombard family of Chicago, at that time celebrated singers of the Northwest. Gen. Neal Dow, the father and founder of the Maine Liquor Law, treated us now and then to temperance lectures, which, in a practical view, seemed to be quite unnecessary, as food was very scarce and intoxicating drinks absolutely out of the question. Religious services were held quite frequently, but in an evil hour a minstrel troupe was organized, which came near swamping religion and all else for the time being."

THE COSMOPOLITAN.

THE January *Cosmopolitan* opens with a picture of the daily life of London's poor, by Lady Henry Somerset. Some features of slum life in the British metropolis are more hopeless than any conditions to be met with in the new world. Jack London has described these in his recent book. In the *Cosmopolitan* article, Lady Henry Somerset dwells on some of the more agreeable aspects of child life in the slums, not minimizing, however, the pathos of it all.

HAPPY LITTLE SAN MARINO.

"The Oldest Republic in the World"—San Marino, which, as it appears, is not a republic at all, but "an oligarchy pure and simple," is described by Mr. Herbert S. Stone. The relations of this odd little government with the kingdom of Italy, which surrounds it, are most amicable.

"A share of the internal revenue is turned by Italy into the coffers of San Marino. The vexed question of the tobacco tax has been settled in an unusual manner; the inhabitants agreeing to grow no tobacco, which enters free of duty. The spirit of liberty has had its effect on the citizens, and they are a peace-loving, law-abiding people."

MR. BRYAN ON FARMING AS AN OCCUPATION.

In the series of articles on "Making a Choice of a Profession," William Jennings Bryan writes on the attractions and possibilities of farming. He sums the matter up in these questions:

"If a father is able to start his son in business with ten thousand dollars, what business is so safe as farming? Given a young man with a thorough education, good habits, willingness to work, and a desire to make himself useful, where can he fare better than on a farm? He can apply his brains to the enriching of the soil, to the diversification of his crops, and to the improvement of his stock, and at the same time give reasonable indulgence to his taste for reading and study. He will have all that contributes to health of body, vigor of mind and to cultivation of the heart—what occupation or profession can offer him richer rewards?"

Among the illustrated features this month there is a timely discussion of "The Odd and Eccentric in the Drama," by H. H. Boyesen, 2d, with striking pictures from the modern spectacular play as presented in our great cities. Laura Grover Smith writes on "Some Famous Hymns and their Authors," and Leo Claretie on "Childhood Through the Ages." "Peru and the Pizarros—a Study in Retribution," by Cyrus Townsend Brady, is the first paper in a series, "The Dramatic and Industrial History of South America," which will be presented in the *Cosmopolitan* during 1904.

FRANK LESLIE'S MONTHLY.

"IMPORTED Americans" is the title of *Frank Leslie's* opening article for January. The writer, Mr. Broughton Brandenburg, relates the experiences of himself and his wife in a steerage journey to Sicily and several weeks' intercourse with a typical emigrant family in their old home, the purpose being to familiarize themselves with the point of view of the great mass of southern Italians whose faces are turned toward America. Mr. and Mrs. Brandenburg spent three months by way of preparation in the Italian

quarter of New York before starting on their outward voyage. While in Sicily they mingled constantly with the families of intending emigrants, learning their habits, mode of life, prospects, and attitude toward American institutions. Knowing by actual observation what the environment of these people is in their native land, they were able to make a far more intelligent study of them as emigrants than would otherwise have been possible.

ADVICE TO BUYERS OF AUTOMOBILES.

This number of *Leslie's* has a special department devoted to the automobile. In a brief article on "What Not to Buy When You Buy an Automobile," Mr. P. M. Heldt adds to many other helpful suggestions this caution to the prospective purchaser of an electric machine:

"Don't purchase a second-hand electric carriage without scrutinizing the condition of the battery. When an electric machine is offered for sale second-hand, the reason often is that the battery is nearly or completely worn out and the owner dreads the expense of renewal. A trial of the car, if it can be had, is a fairly convincing test, as the mileage, or total distance run on one charge, drops with the deterioration of the battery."

Mr. James L. Ford writes on the pervasiveness of the gambling spirit in our modern American life; J. Olivier Curwood describes the manufacture of "pills, an American staple;" the story of Rose Fortune, a New York working girl, begun in the December number, is continued; and Judge Henry A. Shute brings to a close his delightful account of the doings of "A Few Real Boys."

MUNSEY'S MAGAZINE.

MR. W. F. McCaleb's article in the January *Munsey's* on "The Absorption of Mexico" is quoted among the "Leading Articles of the Month." Among other contributions to this number is a description by Ruth Everett of the work of teaching girls domestic science in the schools, first in Boston and afterward in New York. "To-day," says Mrs. Everett, "there are many classes of girls in our public schools who could go before an examining committee and talk intelligently on such seemingly abstruse themes as 'The Germ Theory Applied to Foods,' illustrating their talk with blackboard drawings. They can make simple chemical experiments. They know the relative value of food elements,—protein, albumen, and the rest. They understand the digestion of starch, and the composition of baking-powders. They can talk glibly about litmus tests and the salivary glands. And,—not an entirely unimportant point,—they look very neat in their white caps, sleevelets, and aprons."

Mr. Fritz Cunliffe-Owen shows by the personal stories of some foreigners in America that "foreigners of rank and title who set up their tents in New York are not necessarily blue-blooded blacklegs or mercenary adventurers."

THE NEW BRITISH AMBASSADOR.

Mr. Cunliffe-Owen also sketches the personality of Sir Mortimer Durand, the new British ambassador to the United States. The successor to the late Sir Michael Herbert is described as a lawyer, and a well-known staff officer during the last Afghan war. He is about fifty years old. His earlier diplomatic service was, for many years, in India, and afterward as minister to Persia and ambassador to Spain. He has written two or three

novels and a biography of his father, the late Major-Gen. Sir Henry Marion Durand. Elsie Reasoner's article on "American Sculptors at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition" tells of some of the most important sculpture that American artists will exhibit at St. Louis.

LIPPINCOTT'S MAGAZINE.

IN the January *Lippincott's*, besides the opening short novel by Edgar Fawcett and many short stories, there is an article by A. Schinz about the national theater idea, "The Theater of the People." Mr. Schinz describes the development of such a theater in France, at Bussang, and elsewhere. He tells, also, of the present project of M. Catulle Mendès of a portable popular theater. George Moore compares, in original fashion, the writing of Pierre Loti and of Kipling. "One fits like a swallow, the other rolls like a Maxim gun."

THE WORLD'S WORK.

THE January number of the *World's Work*, in its financial article, points out two directions in which monopoly is making especially rapid progress,—the monopoly of natural products and the monopoly of franchises for the public service. As stated in this article, the rule of action developed by the great combinations of capital that have been acquiring these natural monopolies is simply this: "A natural monopoly is worth any price for which it can be acquired, providing the buyers have money enough to develop it or to await its natural development."

COLOMBIAN BARBARITIES.

Mr. Thomas S. Alexander, a naturalist and trader, who has spent the past five years in Colombia, declares that the country is not entitled to be regarded as a civilized state. During the greater part of the five years Colombia was torn with revolutions, and Mr. Alexander had an opportunity to observe the methods of warfare employed by both the insurgents and the government troops. He relates many instances of barbarities committed by one side or the other. One of the worst atrocities that came to his knowledge was related to him by a government officer, General Triana, in the following words:

"There was a strong force of Liberals ambushed in thick brushwood on the side of a hill. One of our generals was ordered to clear them out, but he could not locate their exact position, and he knew that to advance blindly upon them would mean the loss of a great many of his men.

"What do you think he did? Among his troops there were about forty little boys from ten to fourteen years old. He picked them out and told them to march across the exposed ground toward the enemy. They had never faced death before, and were proud to march ahead of the rest. Before they had gone far, thousands of riflemen opened fire on them, and every one of the forty was killed. Then, the enemy having unmasked their position, our general easily drove them away. A pit was dug after the battle, and the corpses of the forty boys all thrown into it together."

CONNECTICUT, THE INVENTOR'S PARADISE.

Mr. Arthur Goodrich outlines certain conditions in Connecticut which make that State remarkably prolific

in useful and profitable inventions, not all of which are patented.

"There is scarcely an article in common use about your house that is not made in Connecticut, from the hinges and locks on the door to the billiard-table, the clock on your mantel, the sewing-machine in the work-room, your silverware, your gun, your bicycle or automobile, your piano and piano-player, and many such simple things as axes, nails, kitchen hardware, knives and forks, and needles, and chains."

The few things not made in Connecticut will usually be found to have been manufactured by Connecticut-made machinery. The growth of invention in the Connecticut factories, Mr. Goodrich states, has almost invariably led to an increase of wages, a decrease of the hours of labor, and a cheapening of the product.

OTHER ARTICLES.

That ever-attractive theme, "The Best House to Live In," is treated by Joy Wheeler Dow, with a series of pictures illustrating the successive "periods" of American architecture, each with its lesson to the modern home-builder. Mr. George Iles contributes an excellent brief sketch of Herbert Spencer's life work. Miss Adele Marie Shaw gives the results of her investigation of the public schools in the Jersey suburbs of New York, showing that the suburban schools are superior in many ways to those of the city. "A Day with Eskimo Seal-hunters" is the title of an interesting paper by F. Swindlehurst. We have quoted elsewhere from Mr. Marcossou's account of the Chicago Employers' Association and its work.

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.

IN the January *Atlantic*, Col. Thomas Wentworth Higginson, whose fund of reminiscence of the New England "literary set" seems inexhaustible, writes entertainingly of "The Sunny Side of the Transcendental Period," with special reference to the Brook Farm community.

Mr. Edwin Burritt Smith relates in detail the story of the passage through the Illinois Legislature, in May, 1903, of what is believed to be the first general legislative act in the United States providing for the municipal ownership of street railways. This law, it will be remembered, met with the most strenuous opposition of the public service corporations, and was signed by the governor under protest, as it were. The end sought by many of the supporters of this legislation, as it would appear from Mr. Burritt's article, is not public ownership, except as a last resort. Having shown that present conditions are intolerable, he says:

"By means of the act of 1903, the people of Chicago have sought to create conditions that will make the interests of the city and of the companies much more nearly identical, and lead to greatly improved relations, with adequate public control. Conservative men hope that this attempt will succeed. If other solution of the problem be not found, and that speedily, public ownership is inevitable and desirable."

Dr. Andrew D. White contributes an important paper on Fra Paolo Sarpi, the sixteenth-century champion of free thought, who has been designated as one of the three great men whom Italy produced between the fourteenth century and the nineteenth.

Mr. Jack London gives utterance to certain radical

sentiments *in re* the "scab." All efficiency in labor, according to this writer, is "scabbing" upon inefficiency.

"All the world is a scab, and, with rare exceptions, all the people in it are scabs. The strong, capable workman gets a job and holds it because of his strength and capacity. And he holds it because out of his strength and capacity he gives a better value for his wage than does the weaker and less capable workman. Therefore he is scabbing upon his weaker and less capable brother workman. This is incontrovertible. He is giving more value for the price paid by the employer."

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

IN the opening article of the December *North American*, the Hon. Wayne MacVeagh, of counsel in the Venezuelan arbitration proceedings before the Hague tribunal, gives a clear and enlightening statement of the real issues involved in that arbitration. He shows that no question is presented as to the amounts claimed by Venezuela's various creditors. They are to be paid in full in any event. The only question that now awaits decision is as to the order of their payment.

"Great Britain, Germany, and Italy claim that their conduct toward Venezuela was so just and so necessary as to entitle their claims to be paid before any payment is made to her other creditors. Venezuela and the United States, with the other creditor nations, assert the contrary. They contend that the conduct of the allied powers was in direct contravention, both of the spirit which animated the Hague Conference, and of the conclusions as to the duties of nations toward each other which were embodied by it in its conventions, which have received the assent of almost every civilized state, and have thus become an integral part of the law of nations."

THE CANTEEN QUESTION AGAIN.

Col. William Conant Church makes an argument for the restoration of the army canteen which gains in effectiveness from the very moderation with which it is stated. The testimony gathered by the War Department from nearly one hundred army posts showed conclusively that demoralization followed the prohibition of the sale of beer in post exchanges. Ninety per cent. of the posts that expressed positive opinions reported that drunkenness, desertion, absence without leave, and trials by courts-martial had increased. Ninety-five per cent. stated that the condition of health had deteriorated; and all agreed that morality and discipline had been injuriously affected. Colonel Church does not hold up the post canteen as an ideal institution by any means, but he demands that the army officers, who know the enlisted man, his temptations, and his manner of life better than most civilians can know them, should be permitted to deal with this problem in their own way.

IF THE SOUTH HAD BEEN ALLOWED TO GO.

Mr. Ernest Crosby, himself a man of Northern birth and antecedents, comes to the defense of the saying ascribed to Horace Greeley, at the outbreak of the Civil War, "Let the erring sisters go." Mr. Crosby holds that these were the wisest words said by any Northerner at that time. Almost all the ills that we now suffer under as a nation may be traced back to the Civil War.

The race question, so far from being settled by the war, was aggravated by it.

"The spirit of war and imperialism has never yet settled any question, except the question as to which side is the stronger; and now, after forty years, we are beginning to learn that the negro has yet to be emancipated. If the South had been permitted to secede, slavery would have died a natural death, the Southerners would have felt that they had consented to its demise, and they would have accepted the new order with that attitude of acquiescence which is necessary to the success of any social experiment."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Other significant titles in the contents of the December number are "The Attack on the Congo Free State," by Demetrius C. Boulger; "Citizenship and Suffrage," by the Hon. W. L. Scruggs; "Light on some Educational Problems," by Dr. H. A. Stimson; "The Personality of Hawthorne," by Mr. W. D. Howells; "Representative Inequality of Senators," by Sylvester Baxter; and "The British Monarchy: A Reply," by "Defensor." Marrion Wilcox writes on "Colombia's Last Vision of Eldorado," and Señor Pérez, a native Colombian, attempts to give the reasons for his country's rejection of the Hay-Herran treaty. We have quoted elsewhere from Señor Morales' historical statement regarding Panama, and also from Mr. P. T. McGrath's article on "A New Anglo-American Dispute."

THE ARENA.

IN the December *Arena*, the Hon. Harris R. Cooley, Mayor Johnson's director of public charities in the Cleveland city government, makes a spirited protest against "The Criminal Treatment of Crime." The class of offenders with which Mr. Cooley is chiefly concerned in this article consists of those who commit minor misdemeanors and are sentenced to the workhouse. During the two years of Mayor Johnson's first administration in Cleveland, 1,160 such prisoners were pardoned and paroled, whereas in the preceding administration only 84 such offenders against social order had been pardoned. Of the 1,160 pardoned and paroled, 173 have been returned,—or a little more than one-half of the percentage of those who formerly returned, after working out the full measurement of their punishment. As an indication, at least, that this kindlier policy on the part of the Cleveland authorities has not increased crime, Mr. Cooley cites the fact in 1900, the last year of the old régime, the average number of prisoners in the House of Correction in June was 491, while the average for June, 1903, was 224, and the city was reported, at the latter date, as unusually quiet and orderly.

Men who are ordinarily good citizens and useful members of society may, under special stress, commit a workhouse offense, as illustrated in the following incident related by Mr. Cooley: "Our local papers appeared one day with headlines, 'Greater love hath no man than this.' A lineman had rushed to the rescue of his fellow workman, who had been caught by a live electric wire. Fifteen years of experience in this work had made him familiar with the risk and danger. He grasped the wire. The fatal shock passed through his own body. He had saved his comrade, but lost his own life. He was called a hero. He was one of our paroled prisoners from the workhouse. His police court sen-

tence was thirty days, fifty dollars, and costs, for stealing. He had been out of a job, with a wife and a little child dependent upon him. This man was not a thief in his heart."

THE CONTEMPORARY REVIEW.

IN the *Contemporary Review* for December, Sir A. W. Rücker has an elaborate article on the changes which are needed to bring the University of London up to a level which will make it worthy of its position as the central university of the empire. He says that a sum of \$1,500,000 is urgently needed for three objects. The first is the incorporation of University College; the second, the foundation of an institute of preliminary medical studies; and the third, the organization of the higher technical education of London around a great college of technology on the South Kensington site. Each of these schemes would require about \$500,000 to carry out. Professor Rücker passes a very favorable judgment on the work already being done by the university.

A GREAT PRELATE'S WISDOM.

Archdeacon Boutflower contributes an interesting paper of "Sayings of Bishop Westcott." The following is some of the bishop's wisdom:

"The only man I despair of is the man who thinks all things are easy. I have no hope of him at all—none—none."

"The bishop hopes that one effect of the 'special' war prayers and services recently issued will be 'to persuade people how incomparably better the Prayer Book is than anything we can do.'

"The bishop says, 'It constantly fell to my lot to read the Book of Jeremiah during my residence at Peterborough, and it made a deep impression on me. I could not help applying it to England now,—that wilful and spurious patriotism which refuses to recognize that the way to the best for a nation that has sinned may have to lie through submitting to suffering.'"

The bishop did not approve of the Church Hymnal. "Do you think so of 'Hymns, Ancient and Modern,' my lord?" asked —. "I think 'Hymns, Ancient and Modern' has done more harm to popular English theology than any other book—except Milton's poetry," said the bishop."

A NATIVITY LEGEND.

Mr. Austin West contributes an extremely interesting article on the origin of the legend of the ox and the ass at the birth of Christ. Probably even many people fairly familiar with the Gospels think they could easily turn up the reference. But the first mention of the ox and ass as present when the infant Christ was "laid in the manger" occurs in Origen. The first materialization of the legend is found in the pseudo-Matthew Gospel in the fifth century, wherein the ox and ass are made to adore the Saviour.

"On the third day after the birth of the Lord, the Blessed Mary went forth from the cave and entered into the stable; and there she laid her infant in the stall; and the ox and the ass adored him. Then was fulfilled what was spoken by Isaiah the Prophet, saying, 'The ox knoweth his owner, and the ass his master's crib.' And these animals having the child in their midst unceasingly adored him. Then was fulfilled what was spoken by Kaban (Habakkuk) the Prophet, saying, 'In the midst of two animals thou shalt be known.'"

By the thirteenth century there was even an explanation of how the two animals came to be present at the nativity, the story being that Mary went to Bethlehem riding on the ass, and that Joseph led the ox to sell to meet current expenses. St. Bonaventure even related that "the ox and the ass on bended knees placed their mouths upon the manger, breathing through their nostrils, and as though endowed with reason were aware that the child so scantily protected was in need of warmth at a time when the cold was so intense."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Sir Robert Hunter contributes "Reminiscences of Sir Joshua Fitch," Edouard Bernstein writes on "The Growth of German Exports," and Lieutenant-Colonel James reviews Lord Wolseley's "Memoirs." Elsewhere we have quoted from the articles on "Canada and the New Imperialism," "The King and Queen of Italy," and "About Theodor Mommsen," and also from Dr. E. J. Dillon's chronicle of foreign affairs.

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

THE Hon. J. W. Fortescue, writing in the *Nineteenth Century* for December on "History and War Office Reform," makes a number of suggestions:

"A commander-in-chief, then, there must be; but his title might with advantage be changed to that of captain-general; and he should be the effective head of the military government of the army, and nothing more. As the senior officer of the army he should have a seat in the secretary of state's council, of which presently; but he should not be the sole military adviser of the secretary of state. His duties should consist in the maintenance of discipline and instruction, of expending the moneys allotted to him by the secretary of state for current services of the army; and he should be responsible for keeping the army up to the strength fixed by the cabinet for the maintenance of its military policy. The captain-general should be assisted in his duties by a staff organized upon the lines of that for an army in the field; and through this staff all military material should be supplied to the army, as is now the case in war. In a word, the army should be organized in peace as it is in war."

Mr. Fortescue says that this would abolish in great measure the civil side of the War Office; and that this policy is right, as the whole progress of military reform for two and a half centuries has been toward the substitution of military for civil organization.

A TALE OF THE MAGPIE'S NEST.

Mr. Bosworth Smith, who writes another of his admirable bird articles, tells the following legend as explaining the apparent clumsiness of the magpie's nest:

"When the world was still young, so runs the story, the magpie, though she was sharp enough,—too sharp, perhaps, in other things,—found herself, I suppose by way of compensation, quite unable to construct her own nest, and called in other birds to help her. 'Place this stick thus,' said the blackbird. 'Ah,' said the magpie, 'I knew that afore.' Other birds followed with other suggestions, and to all of them she made the same reply. Their patience was at last exhausted by her conceit, and they left her in a body, saying with one consent, 'Well, Mistress Mag, as you seem to know all about it you may e'en finish the nest yourself.' And so, with its dome unfinished and unable to keep out the

wind and rain, it has, in consequence, remained to this very day."

Mr. Smith, however, declares that in reality the magpie displays great constructive art.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Charles Eastlake, late keeper of the National Gallery, opposes the introduction of artificial light and the opening of the gallery after dusk. Lord Hindlip has a brief paper on British East Africa.

THE FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW.

THE *Fortnightly* for December contains only two articles on the protectionist issue—a sign of declining interest. We have noticed elsewhere the article, by Mrs. Emily Crawford, on "The United States of Europe."

A BOARD OF WAR.

Lieut.-Col. Alsager Pollock's proposal for the reform of the War Office is, that both the navy and the army should be placed under one "Board of War," at the head of which should be placed a genuine "Minister of War." The other members would be the "Secretary of State for the Navy," the commander-in-chief of the army, and the "Secretary of State for the Army." The Naval Office and Army Office would each be divided into two branches,—the combatant and the financial; each would have its own board. Colonel Pollock supplements this by declaring that it must be worked on a system of individual responsibility, every official being considered guilty of any deficiency unless he can prove that he has done his part faultlessly.

MR. MORLEY'S "GLADSTONE."

Judge O'Connor Morris contributes a paper on Mr. Morley's "Life of Gladstone," which is not very sympathetic with either Mr. Gladstone or his biographer. He says that the book is rather an elaborate panegyric than a really correct biography. Judge Morris sees nothing good in Mr. Gladstone save his love of liberty. He condemns him as a writer and a speaker.

"Impartial history will hardly place Gladstone among the great masters of English statesmanship. His best achievements were in the province of finance, and even these have been much censured. He was a failure in the conduct of our foreign affairs; he committed enormous mistakes in domestic politics, especially in his vehement advocacy of home rule; he was not a cautious or a far-seeing pilot of the state; his career was too erratic, too inconsistent, too often marked with questionable acts, too much a display of an ambition by no means scrupulous, and seeking in politics personal ends, to deserve the high praise due to our truest patriots; his emotional nature was wanting in sagacity, in judgment, in plain common sense; few public men have provoked such distrust."

THE NATIONAL REVIEW.

THE *National Review* for December is a bulky number. It contains sixty-two pages of the supplement "The Economics of Empire," by the Assistant-Editor, which was begun in an earlier number, and, it is to be hoped, is finished in this.

CAUSES OF GERMAN SOCIALISM.

Herr Georg von Vollmar, a member of the German Reichstag, describes the causes of German Social De-

mocracy, which he urges are not all to be found in the taxation of food. He gives a gloomy account of the medievalism and despotism still existing in the empire. There is really no protection for workers; the right of combination is limited. In some states it is legal to inflict "moderate" corporal punishment on employees; and domestic and agricultural servants are criminally punished in most of the states for leaving their work, and even sent back forcibly to their employers. Constitutional government is a semblance and a pretense; and the press is fettered by the law of *lèse-majesté* and by the obligation of editors to disclose the names of contributors. In short:

"The position of affairs in the empire is, politically, one of extreme seriousness. It is impossible for Germany to endure any longer the existence of the contradiction presented by her external development and her internal backwardness, and of the harsh discord presented by the striving for power and material gain of the ruling classes on the one hand, and, on the other hand, by the educational development, the increased sense of power, the general feeling of discontent, and the straining effort of the nation to put an end to the period of tutelage, and to attain at last its political majority. The future of Germany depends on her path being swept clear of the hindering rubbish which encumbers it and can no longer be tolerated, and on her transformation into a state of modern democratic type, in which all the forces of political and social progress can develop themselves unhindered, and freer conditions can obtain."

AMERICA AND RUSSIA.

Mr. A. M. Low tries to make out that America is immensely excited over events in China:

"It is not inevitable that Russia and America should clash over Manchuria, but it is not improbable. Whatever the future may bring, one thing is absolutely certain: Russia can no more carry on things with a high

hand in Manchuria without considering the United States than she can attempt the Russianization of Korea without running foul of Japan. Russian diplomacy has placed a red-hot poker on top of a barrel of gunpowder."

THE NEW LIBERAL REVIEW.

THE *New Liberal* for December is a varied number, and resembles the other English reviews this month in giving fiscal articles a secondary place.

JEWISH LANGUAGES.

Mr. Zangwill writes on "Language and Jewish Life." "In England and America," he says, "there is practically no specific Jewish language; but Yiddish is the most alive of languages, and its literary and journalistic activity exceeds even that of Hebrew. In American Jewry the tendency to exclude all traces of Jewish nomenclature has been pushed so far that even words like *kosher* have disappeared."

A TUNNEL FROM GREAT BRITAIN TO IRELAND.

Mr. R. P. Croom Johnson has an interesting paper on the project for a tunnel between Great Britain and Ireland. The route most favored by engineers is that between Port Patrick, in Wigtonshire, and Donaghadee, a distance of only 22 miles, with a maximum depth of 900 feet below sea level. Between Holyhead and Howth, near Dublin, the depth is only 432 feet, but the distance is 52 miles, and the length of tunneling required 75 miles. This scheme, if practicable, would be, of course, the best, and the former route would be a convenience chiefly to Scotland and the North of Ireland. In spite of the much greater length, the cost would not be proportionately increased. The Scotch route represents great engineering difficulties, whereas the great length is the only difficulty in the Welsh route. Either tunnel would have to be 150 feet below the sea-floor.

THE SPIRIT OF THE CONTINENTAL REVIEWS.

THE BRITISH FISCAL CONTROVERSY AS VIEWED FROM THE CONTINENT.

THE fiscal controversy in England is naturally enough exciting considerable interest in Italy, where economic science is the subject of serious study. One of the editors of the *Riforma Sociale*, Prof. Luigi Einandi, of Turin, who stands in the first rank among Italian economists, summarizes for his readers both Mr. Balfour's pamphlet and many tables of statistics from the recent Board of Trade report, and comes to the conclusion that so far the protectionists have not proved their case. Of Mr. Chamberlain's utterances he complains that they are clothed "in an artificial obscurity of language which renders it difficult to follow his thought."

The well-known deputy, Luigi Luzzatti, is somewhat less emphatic in the *Nuova Antologia* (November 1), for though he cordially condemns Mr. Chamberlain's proposal, he seems to regard those of Mr. Balfour with an open mind. He concludes an interesting article with two suggestions. As a change in English fiscal policy will necessarily affect the economic position of every country in Europe, he proposes that fiscal treaties between any countries should be "hung up" until such

time as England has decided on the principles of her future policy. Secondly, he suggests that England and Russia should combine at the earliest possible date to summon a great international fiscal congress, at which agreement on certain fundamental principles might be arrived at.

The Dutch review, *Onze Eeuw*, contains an essay on "Free Trade and Prosperity," which treats of the conditions as they exist in Holland. The conclusion arrived at appears to be that the prosperity of the Dutch people is not a result of extreme protectionist measures, but of the more liberal treatment of imports from 1862 to the present time, and that the welfare of the people will not be increased by heavy protectionist duties. At the head of his article the writer places a phrase, which may be freely translated: "By their fruits you shall know them."

FRANCE'S PLACE IN THE WORLD.

An anonymous writer in the *Revue de Paris* for November, discussing France's present position among the nations, observes that a certain pride in herself takes so great a place in France's national character that any renunciation of it would be, so to speak, the beginning of the end. It is easy for this writer to dispose of the

fallacy involved in contrasting the France of to-day with the France of Louis XIV. or Napoleon. He sees clearly how France missed her opportunities in Egypt, and with what extraordinary lack of preparation, both diplomatic and military, the Marchand expedition to Fashoda was planned. The idea of a Franco-German understanding against England by way of revenge for Fashoda he rejects as impossible, and points out that already much progress has been made with the peaceful settlement of various outstanding questions with England. But he lays most stress on the Franco-Italian understanding, as affording the possibility of a pacific regulation of Mediterranean problems. In a general survey, the writer is able to claim that France has largely reconquered her ancient place in the world not by war, but by peace. "We have not wasted our time since Sedan and Fashoda."

FRANCO-ITALIAN RELATIONS.

M. Georges Villiers, in a paper which he contributes to the *Nouvelle Revue*, tracing the modern history of Franco-Italian relations, naturally dates their improvement from 1896, the fall of Crispi and the definite condemnation of his policy. He is careful to distinguish the three main questions,—tariffs, the Mediterranean, and the Triple Alliance,—and he shows how Bismarck utilized Italian Gallophobia to the great advantage of Germany. There is, however, nothing in the Franco-Italian accord which need give umbrage to the Triple Alliance. Rather is it to be likened to the accord established long ago between Russia and Austria, and to both nations it brings equal benefit, for it is based on reason and is sealed with the seal of popular approbation.

THE PORT OF HAVRE.

M. de Rousiers contributes to the *Revue de Paris* for November a study, reinforced with statistics, of the position and progress of the great port of Havre. The only danger he perceives as threatening its prosperity is the danger of isolation, and he urges that every effort should be made to link up Havre as closely as possible to the great consuming region which lies at the back of it.

INCREASING USE OF OPIUM.

The terrible curse of opium is described in the *Nouvelle Revue* for November by M. Coquiôt, who says that the governor of French Cochinchina recently requested his officials to abstain from the use of the drug. The circular letter, M. Coquiôt prophesies, will remain a dead letter. French officials in the East, it seems, would not know what to do with their time if they did not smoke opium, and M. Coquiôt is inclined to take their side in the matter, arguing that the dangers of the drug are less grave than those of alcohol. Naval and military officers have brought home this vice from the East, and you can smoke opium as comfortably at Toulon as at Hongkong. In London there are dens kept by Chinamen, and in Paris there are some in the neighborhood of the Arc de Triomphe. Hasheesh seems to be less popular, but it is significant that the paternal Egyptian Government has forbidden its sale, at any rate in the interior of the country.

LABOR LAWS.

In the second November number of the *Journal des Economistes*, C. Lavollée investigates the effects of the labor laws on work. He thinks such legislation

necessary in the case of women and children, but not otherwise. Employers should arrive at mutually satisfactory understandings with their workmen; and the objection that the latter will then be at the mercy of the former falls to the ground as soon as the organization of unions is taken into consideration.

CANADIAN IMMIGRATION.

Georges N. Tricoche gives in the second November number of the *Journal des Economistes* some figures on transmigration between Canada and the United States. Americans are crossing the border in increasing numbers: in 1896 there were 86; in 1900, 5,791; in 1901, 1,800; in 1902, 37,000. As an offset to this loss of population the French-Canadians are overrunning the eastern part of the United States; but they have not attracted attention because they have taken no part in general politics. They have driven the Irish out of the mills. The latter are Democrats, while the Canadians are Republicans; hence this Canadian immigration has increased the Republican, or protectionist, territory, and has brought superior workmen into the labor market.

THE FRENCH SOCIALIST PARTY.

The present status of the French Socialist party, as it appeared at the Congress of Rheims, is briefly indicated by the *Mouvement Socialiste* for October 15 as follows: There are 1,000 affiliated groups, with some 20,000 regular contributors; 14 federations have a daily, semi-weekly, or weekly paper. There is not a single one which has not succeeded in sending some of its members into legislative bodies. The *Fédération du Nord* alone has nearly 300 of its members in municipal councils; the *Fédération de l'Allier* has 150, etc. Within the last twelve months, twenty-seven out of the twenty-nine federations have held at least one departmental congress. The Central Council of Paris has taken part in 120 public conferences, with the assistance of 36 speakers, in 40 departments and 85 localities.

EXPATRIATED ITALIANS AND OTHERS.

V. Turquen contributes to the *Revue Politique et Parlementaire* some statistics on Italian and other expatriates. In 1851, there were 63,000 Italians living in France; at present there are 300,000 in France and about 500,000 in the other countries of Europe. In Africa, there are 130,000, or about 30,000 each in Algeria, Tunis, and Egypt. In South America, there are 1,000,000; in the United States, 285,000. There are about 2,000,000 Italians altogether away from their native land. Only about 500,000 Frenchmen have left France, 10,000 of these being in Italy. M. Turquen says that it is to the interest of France to receive strangers hospitably. At present there are in France 500,000 Belgians, 80,000 Swiss, and as many Spaniards, who enrich the country with their wealth and their children.

RUSKIN'S POLITICAL ECONOMY.

A Ry-Ratcheff contributes to *Mir Bojy* for October a paper on John Ruskin's political economy *versus* the actual state of society. He assigns to Ruskin a place apart among the great idealists who undertook to find a solution for economic questions. While men of noble and elevated mind, moved with compassion for the suffering multitude, generally interested themselves in the material welfare of the poor, Ruskin, on the contrary, thought that the existing social order stifles especially the soul, and menaces the spiritual things to

which we are entitled. In contradistinction to Tolstoy, who wants to satisfy the "physical hunger" of the masses, Ruskin strives to procure for them spiritual sustenance.

NIETZSCHE'S PHILOSOPHY.

G. Markeloff asserts in *Mtr Bojy* for October that Nietzsche's philosophy has generally been misunderstood and misinterpreted. The chief importance of his philosophic conceptions lies in the fact that his work bears the impress of the period to which it belongs. It deals with ethical, psychologic, social, and religious problems, touching, in short, upon all the forms of the various manifestations of human culture, coming thereby in direct contact with life.

SECONDARY INSTRUCTION IN RUSSIA.

A recent circular of the minister of public instruction leads S. Sozonoff to somewhat pessimistic reflections on the burning questions of secondary instruction in Russia in *Obrazovaniye* for September. More urgent even than the modifications in the curriculum, however necessary they seem, is a change in the methods of instruction, and in the relations between teacher and pupil. The latter are filled with hatred and distrust of their instructors. The school resorts to all the means within its reach for suppressing the budding individuality of its pupils and perverting their minds, thus giving rise to continual and unfortunate conflicts between the body of instructors and those placed in their charge.

GERMAN WOMEN AT THE ELECTIONS.

G. Grossman describes in *Obrazovaniye* for September the active part which the German women have, for the first time, taken in the elections. Ordinarily, most of the states of the German Empire forbid women to attend political conferences or clubs. The law, however, falls into abeyance during election time, and the woman who is at other times deprived of the right of assemblage is suddenly transformed into a citizen free to take part in the agitation and propaganda. Seizing this privilege, the German women have displayed a great activity during the last electoral campaign. Unfortunately, they did not unite for the purpose of obtaining the franchise, which is their chief aim. There was a split between the women of the middle classes, who supported the liberal party, and the working-women, who contributed not a little to the social-democratic victory.

TOLSTOY AS JUSTICE OF THE PEACE.

Interesting material relating to Tolstoy's life is stored in the archives of the office of the justice of the peace for the district of Krapirensk, says D. Uspensky in *Russkaiya Mysl* for September. In 1861-62, Tolstoy acted as justice of the peace in this district, deciding during this period many cases, often contrary to justice. In disputes between landlords and peasants he always took the part of the latter, and consequently incurred much hostility in administrative circles and among the large landowners.

THE TEXTILE INDUSTRY AMONG THE RUSSIAN PEASANTS.

Smirnoff describes in *Russkaiya Mysl* for September the condition of the peasants engaged in textile work in certain governments of central Russia. The women are chiefly engaged in cotton weaving; working from twelve to fifteen hours a day, they can earn about ten to fifteen rubles altogether during the winter. The men prepare silk, earning eighty to one hundred rubles in from eight to ten months. These small returns do not compensate for the losses sustained by agriculture, which is entirely neglected because of that work.

ENGLAND'S COLONIAL POLICY.

In the *Revue Internationale de Sociologie*, Aspe Fleurimont holds up England as an example to France in regard to its colonial policy. England has granted political autonomy to Canada, Cape Colony, and Australia, whose population is akin to that of Europe, while she rules as sovereign over the exploited colonies of tropical Africa.

THE ENGLISH IN MODERN FRENCH NOVELS.

M. Leblond discusses in *La Revue* the treatment of Englishmen and women at the hands of the modern French novelist, maintaining that, on the whole, the English have nothing to complain of on that score. Edmond de Goncourt has done much to correct wrong impressions of the English.

Daudet, on the other hand, drew impossible English people, outrageously and insufferably English. Maupassant, in "Miss Harriet," shed tears over the distressful story of the old maid in England. M. Bourget's Englishwomen are exquisite creations. "Perhaps no Englishman can appreciate so keenly as a Frenchman the poetry of a pretty Englishwoman." J. H. Rosny, who lived a long time in London, has most sympathetically depicted the life of a lower, middle, or rather artisan class girl, "Nell Horn," who marries a Frenchman. Anatole France and the brothers Marguerite are among other modern French novelists who have sympathetically depicted the English character, especially women's character. It would be interesting to know if an equally good case could be made out for the sympathetic treatment by modern English novelists of French men and women.

ITALIAN VIEWS OF PAPAL POLICY.

An anonymous contribution on Leo XIII. and biblical criticism in the *Rassegna Nazionale*, November 1, sums up very ably the attitude of intelligent Catholics toward biblical exegesis,—an attitude of far greater freedom than that of orthodox Protestants,—and traces the development of Leo's interest in the subject culminating in the appointment of the Biblical Commission, one of the most far-reaching acts of his pontificate. Papal policy is still apparently the dominating interest in the peninsula, and the mid-November issue leads off with a very laudatory article on Pius X. by the senator, Tancredo Canonico. The *Rassegna*, owing to its views on the temporal power, is so persistently accused of "Liberal Catholicism" that it is anxious, whenever possible, to testify to its fundamental orthodoxy.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

BOOKS OF TRAVEL AND OBSERVATION.

SENATOR BEVERIDGE, in his book on "The Russian Advance" (Harpers), tells us, first of all, what the Muscovite is doing in Manchuria, and how and why he is doing it. This is a theme of engrossing interest at the present moment. Much of what we read about

and industrial ideals of the Russian people. Therefore, Senator Beveridge devotes several chapters of his book to such topics as "Russian Capital and Labor," "The Russian Workingman," "The Labor Laws of Russia," and "The Independent Peasant Artisan." These chapters throw much light on the problems of modern industrialism, and are worthy of the serious attention of American students. Especially to be noted are the statements regarding the development of manufactures and the employment of peasant labor therein. Here, as throughout the book, there are interesting side-lights on the possibilities of American commercial expansion. The author seems to have had constantly in mind the desire of his own people to extend their commercial horizon. Just at this moment, Senator Beveridge's chapter on "The Soldier of the Russian Advance and the Soldier of Japan" is of the greatest interest. It may be said of the book as a whole, that it differs from earlier works by English writers on the same subject in its untrammelled and unconventional method of treatment. It is written with all the raciness of journalism and with a delightful freedom from the little artificialities that so often characterize the published writings of our public men.

The latest account of conditions in the Philippines is the Rev. Dr. Arthur J. Brown's volume entitled "The New Era in the Philippines" (Revell). The value of this work lies in the fact that its statements are based



SENATOR ALBERT J. BEVERIDGE.

Russia's aims in the far East, especially in the English review, is the merest speculation. It is not convincing, because it lacks a basis of positive fact. Senator Beveridge has approached the subject impartially, with no predilections, but with the desire that any observant American would naturally have, to learn what lessons this mighty transformation now being worked out in Manchuria has for the great republic of the West, which is itself a Pacific power, and is sponsor for a distinct trade policy in the Orient. He has studied not only the Russian policy in the abstract, but the men who are intrusted with the task of carrying the policy into effect,—the personnel of the agents, civil and military, who make up the Czar's advance guard in Manchuria. He has observed their methods and practice in detail. After viewing on the ground the actual process by which the far East is undergoing Russianization, Senator Beveridge pushed his inquiries still further. In the first half of his book are set forth the essential facts that make up the Manchurian situation of to-day; in the remaining chapters are discussed the significant tendencies in the social life of old Russia. We cannot hope to comprehend the Russian advance in the East unless we know what lies back of it all in the political



REV. ARTHUR J. BROWN, D.D.

on personal interviews with many classes of people now living in the Philippines,—Americans, Englishmen, Spaniards, Tagalogs, Visayans, Chinese, as well as civil and military officials and representatives of both the Protestant and Roman Catholic churches.

Among the topics treated are "The Labor Problem in the Philippines," "The Chinese in the Philippines," "The Increased Cost of Living," "The American Population," "Churches for Americans," "The Roman Catholic Church in the Philippines," "Protestant Missionary Policy," "The Public School," "Protestant Mission Schools," "The Language Question," and "The Type of Men Needed." Dr. Brown, as secretary of the Board of Foreign Missions of the Presbyterian Church, naturally represents the Protestant point of view as regards missions; but his book is eminently fair to the Roman Catholic clergy, and commends the desire of the civil authorities strictly to preserve the American policy of the separation of Church and State. All that Dr. Brown asks for the Protestant churches in the Philippines is a fair field and no favor.

Sir Harry Johnston's book, "The Nile Quest" (Stokes), gives the record of various explorations of the Nile and its basin. In this work will be found full and accurate accounts of the work of Bruce, Burton, Speke, Baker, Schweinfurth, Stanley, and other intrepid explorers who contributed to our knowledge of this wonderful river valley. The book is copiously illustrated.

"Historic Buildings as Seen and Described by Famous Writers" is the title of an attractive compilation by Esther Singleton (Dodd, Mead & Co.). The two principles that have guided the compiler are, first, the beauty or interest from an artistic standpoint; second, the historical associations. The selection exhibits a great variety both in the subjects chosen and in the authors from whom quotations are made. Tourists who have visited any of these famous buildings should be glad to have these descriptions arranged and presented in so attractive a manner.

SENATOR GEORGE F. HOAR.

Mr. M. A. De Wolf Howe's "Boston: The Place and the People" (Macmillan) is a serious attempt to present the historic aspects of the one American city which more than any other is conscious of its historic associations. The book is attractively illustrated.

BIOGRAPHY AND REMINISCENCE.

The two-volume "Autobiography of Seventy Years," by Senator George F. Hoar (Scribners), gives the intimate life history of a public man who has always stood for the best traditions of American statesmanship. Mr. Hoar entered the House of Representatives in 1860 and the Senate in 1877. He has survived most of the men who were his colleagues in the early years. His term of service began six years later than the period of Blaine's "Twenty Years of Congress," but it comprises another twenty years immediately following Blaine's, — years lacking, perhaps, in the dramatic incidents of the Civil War era, but still fraught with momentous issues. Senator Hoar's book is not merely a record of Congressional debates, however. It is throughout a vivacious personal narrative. Its author has long been recognized as one of the few gifted writers who sit among our Solons at the national capital. It goes without saying that this story of his own career is well told.

Dr. Lyman Abbott's "Henry Ward Beecher" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) has a distinct place of its own in the mass of literature that has for its central theme the life-work of the great Brooklyn preacher. Several very good "lives" of Beecher, including the authorized family biography, were already in existence, and it was not necessary for Dr. Abbott to tell the full story over again. Mr. Beecher's identification with

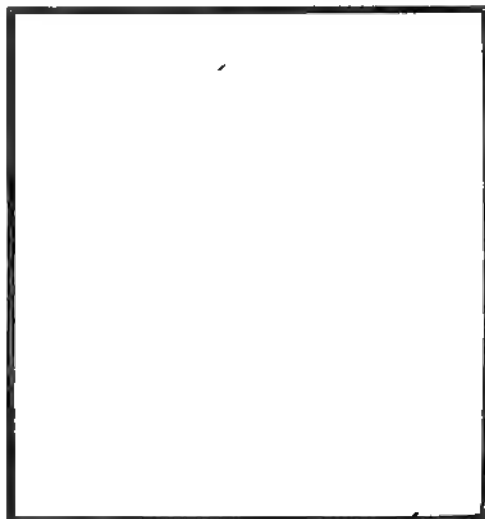
the great events of his time makes a record of his life in some sense a national history. But Dr. Abbott disclaims any intention to attempt the task of an historian, seeking merely to interpret the life and character of a man who for many years was his intimate friend, and who, as he expresses it, "has probably done more to change directly the religious life and indirectly the theological thought in America than any preacher since Jonathan Edwards." Dr. Abbott came under the influence of Mr. Beecher's preaching in 1834, when he was not yet twenty years of age. In later years, he was associated with Mr. Beecher in the editorship of the *Christian Union* and in other literary work. In 1887, on Mr. Beecher's death, Dr. Abbott became his successor in Plymouth pulpit. No one is better qualified at this time to write a just and useful estimate of Mr. Beecher's character and career. The generation that has come upon the scene since the close of the Civil War will find much in this volume conducive to a clear understanding and appreciation of the dramatic events in which Beecher and other Northern agitators figured so prominently.

An entirely new "lead" has been struck in "The Story of a Labor Agitator," by Joseph R. Buchanan (Outlook Company). Mr. Buchanan is a type of labor agitator of whom the general public knows but little. He counts as one of the small number of so-called "labor editors," of whom perhaps the most distinguished representative was the late John Swinton. Mr.

introduction to the study of American history. Every boy and girl who becomes interested in Champlain and what he did for the conquest of our continent in behalf of European civilization will read the history of the French colonies with greater zest and keener understanding.

BOOKS OF RELIGIOUS APPEAL.

New "lives" of Christ are coming from the press each year, and the demand arising from the critical revision of the sacred story has been met with varying success;

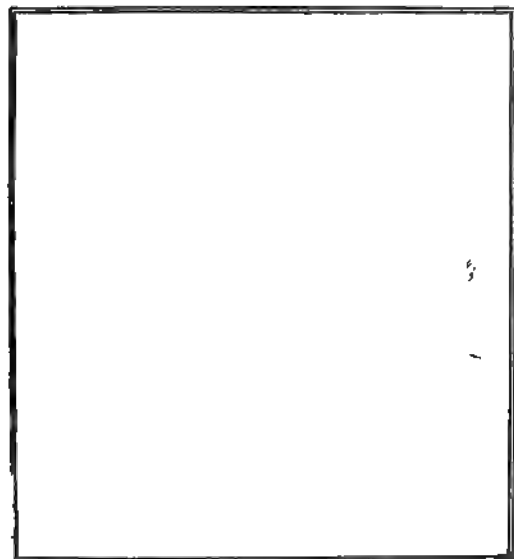


PROFESSOR NOAH K. DAVIS.

but the authors whose scholarly and literary equipment is equal to the task of preparing a satisfactory history of our Lord's life on earth are few indeed. Not all of the scholars can write; not all of the skilled writers have the required knowledge. In Prof. Noah K. Davis, of the University of Virginia, both qualities are happily combined. Professor Davis has been known for a quarter of a century to college students the country over as an authority in the field of mental science. To a smaller circle he has been known as a diligent student of the Bible. Always a graceful writer, Professor Davis, in "The Story of the Nazarene" (Revell), reveals new powers in that direction, and in this skillful combination of the Gospel narratives he presents a story of unflagging interest.

With the purpose of making accessible to the reader of English, in a form easily grasped, the mass of extra-canonical literature which pretends to record the life and words of Christ, the Rev. James de Quincey Donehoo has prepared "The Apocryphal and Legendary Life of Christ" (Macmillan). Much of the matter included in this volume has never before appeared in English translation, and all is cast in continuous narrative, with notes and scriptural references. A more compact presentation of the same class of material is made by Dr. Bernhard Pick in "The Extra-Canonical Life of Christ" (Funk & Wagnalls). Each of these volumes, besides collecting the unscriptural data of Christ's life, affords a good introduction to the New Testament apocrypha in general.

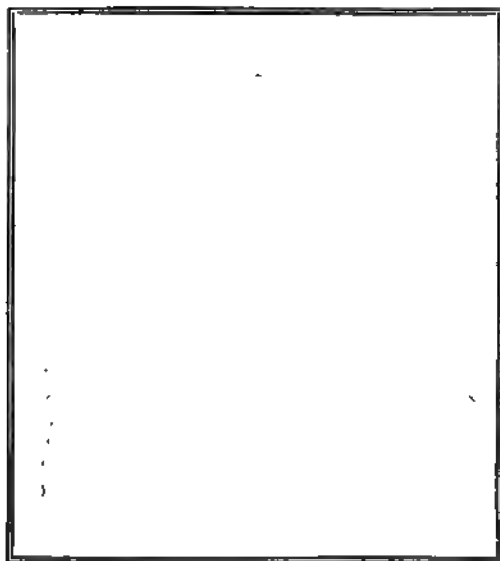
"The Bible in Browning," by Minnie Gresham Machen (Macmillan), is an interesting collocation and study of



MR. JOSEPH R. BUCHANAN.

Buchanan was at the front in the labor movement during the critical period between 1880 and 1890, and himself formed a "great part" of events the inner story of which is well worth the telling. Aside from the revelation that this book gives of the true animus of the labor movement in the United States, it is of far more than average interest merely as an autobiography.

In Appleton's "Historic Lives Series," Mr. Edwin Asa Dix has written the story of "Champlain, the Founder of New France." Books like this, dealing with the personal careers of pioneer leaders, make an attractive in-



REV. WASHINGTON GLADDEN, D.D.

the biblical allusions in Robert Browning's poetry, with particular reference to "The Ring and the Book." A similar study of the biblical influence on Shakespeare is prosecuted by Mr. William Burgess in a volume correspondingly entitled "The Bible in Shakespeare" (Chicago: Winona Publishing Company). These works seem to have been conceived and written in the spirit of Professor Moulton's university lectures and of Dr. Henry van Dyke's interpretation of the scriptural element in Tennyson's poems.

The broad purpose of the Noble Lectures at Harvard University, which were founded with a desire to extend the influence of Jesus as the way, the truth, and the life; to make known the meaning of the words of Jesus, "I am come that they might have life, and that they might have it more abundantly," was well promoted by the lectures delivered on that foundation by Dr. Washington Gladden in the spring of 1908. The lectures, which are really six biographical studies, are now published under the title "Witnesses of the Light" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). These are the personalities whom Dr. Gladden selects as exemplars, each in his own peculiar way, of the Christ-like spirit and ideals: "Dante, the Poet;" "Michelangelo, the Artist;" "Fichte, the Philosopher;" "Victor Hugo, the Man of Letters;" "Wagner, the Musician;" and "Ruskin, the Preacher."

The Rev. John Harrington Edwards, a retired Brooklyn clergyman, has written an interesting little book about "God and Music" (Baker & Taylor Company), treating the subject from the scientific and æsthetic points of view as well as in its theological aspects. His argument has not a few novel features that are likely to attract attention and stimulate discussion within and without the Church.

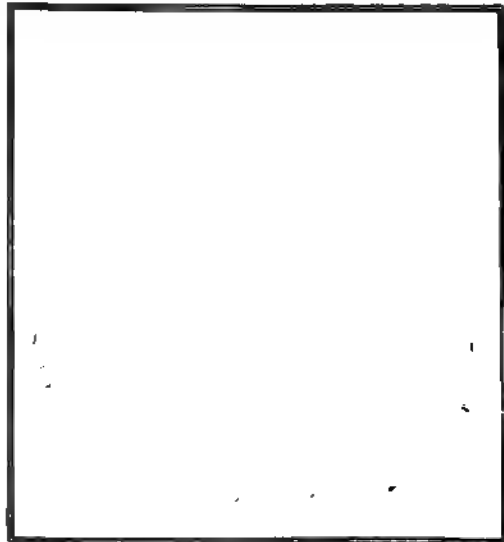
The foremost representative of New England Congregationalism of the present time is a man of Scottish birth,—Dr. George A. Gordon, of the Old South Church, Boston. If one were seeking for a fair statement of the present-day New England theology, he could probably not do better than to read and digest Dr. Gordon's new

book, "Ultimate Conceptions of Faith" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). This volume, which contains the lectures delivered by Dr. Gordon at Yale University on the Lyman Beecher foundation in 1902, treats of "The Preacher as a Theologian;" "The Quest for a Theology;" "The Categories of Faith;" "The Individual Ultimate—Personality;" "The Social Ultimate—Humanity;" "The Historical Ultimate—Optimism;" "The Religious Ultimate—Jesus Christ;" "The Universal Ultimate—The Moral Universe;" and "The Absolute Ultimate—God." Dr. Gordon is a forceful writer, and as an exponent of the advanced "orthodoxy" of his time he is a worthy successor of Horace Bushnell and Henry Ward Beecher.

While Dr. Gordon's message is addressed more especially to the men who mold opinion, Dr. Charles Edward Jefferson's "Things Fundamental" (Crowell) was evidently written for the man in the street,—or shall we say the man in the pew? In preparing this series of addresses the pastor of Broadway Tabernacle in New York clearly had in mind the members of his congregation who were too busy to read,—almost too busy to think,—at all deeply on theological problems. The old and the new conceptions of the Scriptures, the nature of miracles, the forgiveness and the punishment of sin, the immortality of the soul, and other problems of religious thought are discussed by Dr. Jefferson with directness and vigor.

The Rev. William Chester's treatise on "Immortality a Rational Faith" (Revell) is not a theological argument exclusively, but an exposition of the common grounds of the faith afforded by science, philosophy, and religion. The reasoning and conclusions are clearly and succinctly stated. The work is valuable for the use that it makes of the latest discoveries. The late Professor Charles Carroll Everett's "Immortality, and Other Essays" (Boston: American Unitarian Association) is a contribution along similar lines.

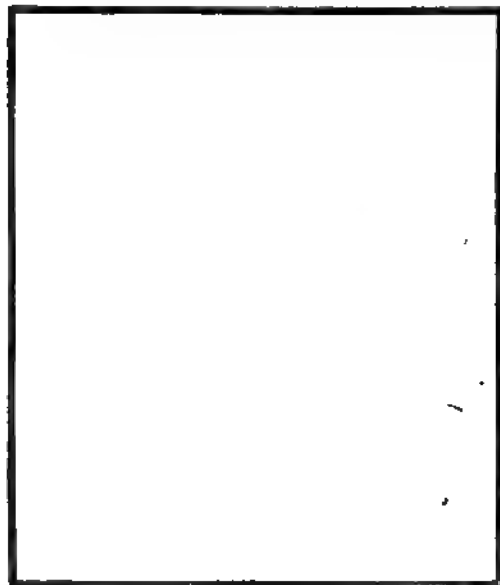
Professor Francis G. Peabody's little book, "The Religion of an Educated Man" (Macmillan), consists of three lectures delivered before the students of Haverford College, entitled, respectively, "Religion as Edu-



REV. GEORGE A. GORDON, D.D.

ation," "The Message of Christ to the Scholar," and "Knowledge and Service." These lectures make no attempt to harmonize the truths of science and religion, for they assume that there is no longer room for controversy. "Philosophy, science, and theology are all committed to the problem of unification." It is Professor Peabody's aim to point out the real significance of religion in our modern life and to show, as it were, the educational processes of a healthy religious development. His is a capital book to put in the hands of college and university-trained men everywhere.

Only the other day the telegraph announced the death of Dr. H. Clay Trumbull, the veteran army chaplain and editor of the *Sunday-School Times*. Dr. Trum-



THE LATE DR. H. CLAY TRUMBULL.

bull was a preacher of original and unusual power. It is fortunate that a dozen or more of his most famous and effective sermons were collected and revised for publication during his lifetime. The volume containing them has just appeared, under the odd title, "Shoes and Rations for a Long March" (Scribners). Dr. Trumbull, as he himself puts it, "was never called to have the help or the hindrances of training in a divinity school or a theological seminary." He began to preach, at the outbreak of the Civil War, because he believed he had a message to his fellow men. Having something to say, he quickly found a way to say it. It is safe to predict that "Shoes and Rations" will interest readers of many types, including those to whom the conventional sermon is not always an unmixed joy.

An outcome, as well as an evidence, of the changing attitude of evangelical Christianity on one of the cardinal points in theology is Dr. J. M. Whiton's compact discussion of "Miracles and Supernatural Religion" (Macmillan). The tendency of this work is to uphold the supernatural character of the Christian religion, while frankly admitting the lowered estimate of the importance of miracles in themselves.

The latest volume in the excellent and readable series known as "The Story of the Churches" (Baker & Tay-

lor Company) is Dr. John Alfred Faulkner's account of the rise and growth of Methodism. In the compass of two hundred and fifty small pages, Dr. Faulkner compresses a history as rich in human interest as that of any religious body that has yet been recorded.

Two books significant of a renewed interest in religious education are the Rev. George Whitefield Mead's "Modern Method's in Sunday-School Work" (Dodd, Mead & Co.) and "The Natural Way in Moral Training," by Patterson Du Bois (Revell). Mr. Mead's volume is a practical summary and exposition of the improved methods now in service under experienced Sunday-school workers. Mr. Du Bois deals not so much with the methods as with the principles of religious education, pointing out the parallel between the laws of soul nurture and those of physical nutrition. His book is full of suggestions to the advocates of reform in the educational work of the Church.

MANUALS ON DOMESTIC THEMES.

The past year has been prolific in books concerned with home-building and the arts of house decoration. One of the most suggestive works of this character is Mrs. Candace Wheeler's "Principles of Home Decoration" (Doubleday, Page & Co.). Mrs. Wheeler has so long made these matters her special study that she is recognized to-day as an authority in this field. In the present volume she discusses many of the problems that confront the householder and elucidates the guiding principles of effective decoration,—by suggestion and illustration rather than through the medium of formal or didactic statement. "Homes and Their Decoration," by Lillie Hamilton French (Dodd, Mead & Co.), is an attempt to cover the same ground in greater detail. The different rooms of the house are treated individually, each with reference to its specific needs and uses. The book thus becomes a sort of compendium of helpful hints to the decorator, affording at the same time a fund of practical information, much of which will be quite new to many readers and useful, in this compact and attractive form, to almost everybody, whether owner or lessee, who is concerned about the furnishings of his home.

"Home Building and Furnishing" (Doubleday, Page & Co.) is the title given to a combined new edition of "Model Houses for Little Money," by William L. Price, and "Inside of 100 Homes," by W. M. Johnson. The most remarkable thing in connection with the building plans offered by Mr. Price is the assertion, for the truth of which he vouches, that houses have actually been built on these plans for the sums given in the book as estimates,—ranging from \$1,000 to \$4,500,—to the satisfaction of the owners. The plans, together with Mr. Johnson's suggestions on furnishings, were originally published in the *Ladies' Home Journal*.

A book that many people have been looking for has at last arrived in the form of a volume on "The Care of a House," by T. M. Clark (Macmillan). Mr. Clark is a practical architect, and his suggestions regarding the care of dwelling-houses are made for the benefit of householders, housekeepers, landlords, tenants, trustees, and, in short, everybody who is or should be interested in the economical maintenance of residence property. The chapters on "How a House is Built," "Stoves and Furnaces," "Steam and Hot-Water Heating," and "Plumbing" are particularly enlightening. The architect's responsibility to his client ends with the completion of the house, and the owner is left without guid-

ance as to the efficient care of his property. It is then that he needs the kind of advice, from professional sources, that this book affords.

Inexperienced householders have a cause for thankfulness in Mr. W. D. Ellwanger's book, "The Oriental Rug" (Dodd, Mead & Co.). This is a practical handbook of the subject, brief and interesting. It gives a working classification, with essential details as to designs, borders, and methods of manufacture. Persian, Caucasian, and Turkish varieties are treated specifically, and there is much miscellaneous information of a useful sort. The few colored plates employed in the book are well executed and extremely helpful as guides to a definite knowledge of the types represented. The volume is a piece of unusually good bookmaking with a clearly-defined purpose apart from mere embellishment.

Mrs. Candace Wheeler's little manual, "How to Make Rugs" (Doubleday, Page & Co.), should prove an aid and a stimulus to the revival of at least one form of home industry in many of our country neighborhoods. It describes the processes employed in the making of various kinds of domestic rugs, giving many helpful suggestions to the farmer's wife and daughter.

"The Old China Book" (Stokes) is the contribution of N. Hudson Moore to the common stock of information on a subject which cannot as yet boast a literature at all proportioned to its inherent interest. This volume, illustrated with a great number of photographs of old English and American ware, may be utilized as a handbook by collectors and owners of rare china for the purpose of identifying specimens.

"Toilers of the Home," by Lillian Pettengill (Doubleday, Page & Co.), is the unique record of a college woman's experience as a domestic servant. Miss Pettengill formed her opinions on the problem of domestic service not from books or magazine articles, but from actual "living out." Whatever one may think of her conclusions, she cannot be set down as a mere doctrinaire.

A FEW VOLUMES ON SOCIAL PROBLEMS.

In the preface of his book on "Organized Labor" (Philadelphia: American Book and Bible House), John Mitchell says: "I wish to see the interests and ideals of labor and capital fairly reconciled, not by surrender, but by mutual understanding, and to see the rights and responsibilities of all parties, the workman, the employer, and the public, clearly, completely, and unmistakably recognized." It was with the expressed desire to aid in bringing about such a result that Mr. Mitchell wrote this book, and no work of the kind heretofore published is so well fitted, in our judgment, to contribute to the attainment of that end. It is in this volume that the aims and aspirations of the whole American labor movement are more clearly and fully set forth than ever before. The case of trade-unionism is presented by one who thoroughly believes in the unions as they exist to-day, but who frankly admits that mistakes have been made in the past and that mischievous tendencies must be guarded against for the future. In addition to his exposition of the principles of unionism as applied in practical labor problems, Mr. Mitchell has inserted in his book an account of the great coal strike of 1902. In the preparation of the volume for publication Mr. Mitchell was assisted by Wal-

ter E. Weyl, Ph.D., a trained economist and student of social questions.

Mr. George L. Bolen, the author of "Plain Facts as to the Trusts and the Tariff," has written a new book, entitled "Getting a Living: The Problem of Profits, Wages, and Trade Unionism" (Macmillan). The point of view taken in this volume is that of the great "third party" to the labor controversy,—the public. It seems to have been the author's chief aim to collate the essential and significant facts of the industrial situation, leaving to others the formulation of theories and policies. This book removes the last excuse for ignorance and misinformation on the vital social problems of the hour.

The two well-stocked volumes on "The Tenement-House Problem," edited by Robert W. De Forest and Lawrence Veiller (Macmillan) form a notable contribution to the literature of social betterment. New York is the greatest tenement city in the world, and the editors have gathered there the most complete and systematic data; but other American cities have been investigated, and there is a chapter on housing conditions and tenement laws in leading European cities. The report of the New York State Tenement Commission appointed by President Roosevelt while he was Governor of New York is included in these volumes. Almost every phase of the subject is treated on the monograph plan, and the photographic illustrations are numerous.

THE LORE OF THE FOREST.

Stewart Edward White's new book, "The Forest" (The Outlook Company), was foreshadowed, in a measure, in the story of "The Blazed Trail," for that story showed its author a "woods cruiser" to the manner born. Every reader of Mr. White's books who has himself "camped out" in the solitude of the great north woods, in the region of our Great Lakes, must have noted the accuracy, the subtlety, and the grace with which this writer has transferred to the printed page the secrets of woodcraft which before his time had been passed imperfectly by word of mouth to the initiated, but never committed to cold type. In his last book, Mr. White communicates not a little practical instruction, which the hunter or fisherman may profit by, and he gives, too, some admirable sketches of the people one may meet in the northern forests. Altogether an admirable book.

As an elementary manual of the subject nothing heretofore published compares with Prof. Samuel B. Green's "Principles of American Forestry" (New York: John Wiley & Sons). The increasing number of students who are fitting themselves to become foresters in the Government service or in the employ of corporations will find this work of direct and invaluable assistance.

Dr. Campbell E. Waters has written a book on the subject of "Ferns" (Henry Holt & Co.), which will doubtless do much to encourage the amateur botanist in studies that have heretofore seemed difficult, partly because popular manuals of this kind have been lacking. Dr. Waters' book contains an analytical key covering the ferns of the Northeastern States. The illustrations of the volume, of which there are more than two hundred, are from original drawings and photographs, and could not well be improved upon.

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**DR. CHARLES W. DABNEY, PRESIDENT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE,
AND PRESIDENT-ELECT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI.**

(Dr. Dabney, who has accepted an invitation to become president of the University of Cincinnati, has for the past sixteen years been president of the University of Tennessee, at Knoxville, and is one of the foremost educators and scientists of the United States. Graduating successively at Hampden-Sidney College and the University of Virginia, he completed post-graduate studies in German universities, and then for six or seven years before going to Knoxville was in North Carolina as a professor of chemistry, director of the agricultural experiment station, and founder of the State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts. For four years, under President Cleveland, he was Assistant Secretary of Agriculture at Washington, and he has had charge of the Government's agricultural exhibits at various expositions. He is an active member of the Southern Education Board, founded the great Summer School for Teachers at Knoxville, and is a leading advocate of public schools of an improved and practical character for all the children of both races of the South.)

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY

Review of Reviews.

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No. 2.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*The
Far-Eastern
Crisis.*

The foremost world-topic of the past month continued to be the strained and critical situation in the far East.

The tide of national feeling in Japan was rising higher every day; and a spirit of more intense patriotism has hardly ever been exhibited in any period of history. The Japanese feel that Russian encroachment threatens their vital interests, and that Japan must act decisively now, rather than at some future time, if she is to entertain any reasonable hope of success. Russia, in her characteristic way, has been doing everything possible to make for diplomatic delay. Her potentialities are vast and incalculable, but she is embarrassed by her magnificent distances and her lack of development. She does not propose to sacrifice any fundamental points in her policy, but prefers to play the waiting game, and has faith in her destiny. She will seem to yield,—and “stoop to conquer.”

*Russian
Proposals.*

Russia has been proposing compromises by which the Japanese influence shall be paramount in the southern portion of Korea, while the Czar's empire-builders shall have practically a free hand to the northward of a neutral zone that Russia proposes to draw across the country. This would give Russia full control of the Yalu River, which is the boundary between Korea and Manchuria, and would also mean, in effect, the Russianization of the adjacent northern part of Korea, thus virtually extending the southern tip of Siberia in such a way as to give Russia a continuous land connection from Vladivostok to Port Arthur. Russia further insists upon the guarantee of free and unobstructed navigation through the channels of the Korean Strait, which lies between Korea and Japan. Further, admitting certain trading rights in Manchuria, Russia has refused to discuss with Japan the political future of that nominally Chinese province.

*Japan's
Position.*

The Japanese, on the other hand, feel that any such arrangement would give them only temporary security in southern Korea, while making certain the outright annexation of Manchuria by Russia in the near future, and also, probably, the annexation of the Yalu or northern portion of Korea. They further consider that such an arrangement would make certain the complete dominance of Russia at Peking and the ultimate Russianization of at least the northern part of China proper, together with Mongolia. In short, the great stake for which the Japanese hold they are contending is the preservation of the Chinese Empire, and the maintenance and integrity of Korea as an Oriental state nominally independent but practically under Japanese influence and guardianship. It is believed by the Japanese, in view of their own remarkable modern history, that if Russian encroachments can only be resisted during this present period of China's helplessness and Korea's pitiable feebleness, the time will certainly come when the latent strength of China will be developed and organized, so that in coöperation or in alliance with Japan, the far-Eastern powers can protect themselves against the Russian advance. Meanwhile, they ask China to appear neutral.

*Sentiment
in the Two
Countries.*

It is not difficult to understand the nature of these aspirations on the part of the ambitious and self-confident Japanese. The masses of the people in Russia, on the other hand, distant as they are from the Pacific outposts,—and only scantily interested in the imperial ambitions which have attended the building of the Trans-Siberian railroad system,—are thoroughly opposed to a war with Japan. Thus, the reports, from day to day, that have come from Tokio and other far-Eastern points have been intensely warlike, while the reports that have come from St. Petersburg, as well as from Paris, where Russia has influence, have

A MAP TO ILLUSTRATE THE SITUATION IN THE FAR EAST.

been steadily peaceful and reassuring. The Japanese have been as one man in asserting their position, and the Russians have been divided in sentiment and indisposed to face decisive issues. On the part of Japan, the past few weeks have been full of incessant military activity. Army supplies have been purchased in large quantities in foreign countries, including the United States, and the two warships bought from the Argentine Government some time ago, as they were approaching completion at Genoa, were hurriedly made ready for their long voyage, and passed through the Suez Canal about the middle of

January,—closely watched by a Russian squadron on its way to reënforce the Czar's fleet at Port Arthur. In both countries chiefly concerned, the press was kept under strict censorship. It was evident, however, that the Japanese Government, while less nervous and excitable about the situation, was growing more firm and resolute in its diplomatic exchanges with Russia. It was also reassured by the solidarity of Japanese sentiment and the disposition of all the people to make unlimited sacrifices, and further strengthened in its attitude by reports from its ministers in Europe and America

NICHOLAS II. OF RUSSIA, WHO HAS BEEN STRIVING FOR PEACE IN THE FAR EAST.

of widespread sympathy with the view that Japan was representing the cause of the commercial world at large. The Czar, on the other hand, was making it evident in various ways that he was determined to maintain peace, even if it involved a good deal of apparent concession. The Russian ambassadors in Europe and at Washington were instructed to explain that Russia would under all circumstances respect such trading rights in Manchuria as were guaranteed in treaties with China.

Our Trading Rights in Manchuria. The insistence of our own government finally, last month, secured the ratification at Peking of the long-delayed commercial treaty that opens to our commerce two or three Manchurian ports, including Mukden, and the Japanese Government at the same time secured the ratification of its similar treaty. Steps were at once taken at Washington to place consular officers at those Manchurian points, in order to secure prompt resumption of our trading rights. Russia, meanwhile, took pains to assure our government of its entire acquiescence in this arrangement, and

further promised that American rights thus secured should be respected and maintained in the future, regardless of the extent to which Russia might find herself compelled to assume control in that region. While this sounds very well, and has some value, it must not be accepted as at all conclusive. When the time comes for Russia to annex Manchuria openly, her trade policy there will not be different from that which she has adopted uniformly for the rest of her great empire. She will inevitably undertake to do with Manchuria what we should do if we annexed British Columbia,—namely, extend to the acquired territory the national tariff system and general economic policy.

Russian Policy versus Our Trade Prospects. Russia has taken a large chapter out of the history of American protection, and proposes to supply her outlying agricultural districts with manufactured goods from her older and more populous provinces, where textile and metallurgical industries are developing with great rapidity. At this epoch, when, after acquiring the Philippines and other interests in the Pacific, we are about to construct

also, the Japanese, while admitting that Russian interests are greater than theirs in Manchuria, claim, nevertheless, to have very important commercial and other connections with that province, and refuse most emphatically to acquiesce in its complete Russianization.

*Korea as
a Bone of
Contention.*

The situation in Korea, meanwhile, has been a disturbed one, and there has been enough fear of dangerous outbreaks at Seoul, the capital of the country, to justify the sending of a few American marines

COUNT LAMSDORFF, RUSSIAN MINISTER OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS.

(Who is an advocate of peace.)

an interoceanic canal, we could not be expected to look with entire complacency upon a policy of Russian expansion that has for its ultimate object the acquisition of large areas and populations in the far East in order to provide new Russian markets and to shut out American and other European competition. Whenever Russia may feel safe in dropping the pretense of China's authority in Manchuria, and avowedly make that region a part of her Asiatic domains, she will not be under any obligation to maintain the commercial treaty between China and the United States that has just gone into effect. For the future Oriental trade of this country, it is probably desirable, therefore, that the integrity of the Chinese Empire should be maintained. Thus,



THE TWO NEW CRUISERS, "NISSEIN" AND "KASAGA."

(Bought by Japan from the Argentine Government. They sailed from Genoa last month, via Suez, for Japan.)

COUNT CASSINI, RUSSIAN AMBASSADOR AT WASHINGTON.

(Who has negotiated with Secretary Hay on the Manchurian question, and who gives assurance of Russia's maintenance of our trade rights.)

there to protect our legation. The example of the United States was promptly followed by several other countries; so that by the middle of January there was a considerable force of soldiers of various lands at Seoul, acting as legation guards. We are glad to publish in this number an interesting article written for us by the Hon. J. Sloat Fassett, of Elmira, N. Y., whose business interests in Korea have kept him there for a large part of the time in recent years, and whose knowledge of the conditions of the country, as well as of the conflicting positions of Japan and Russia, is a very practical and intimate one. Mr. Fassett's views and statements are given in the light of the most recent data, and have exceptional value. He addressed Cornell University last month on the far-Eastern question.

*Strategies of
a Possible
War.* On the eve of a possible conflict in the far East, it would not be easy to make an accurate comparison of the forces, either land troops or on sea, that might be brought into the theater of action. Both sides have endeavored to shield their more recent movements from publicity as far as possible. If war should break out, many European and some American engineers and travelers declare that the Trans-Siberian Railroad would

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COUNT KUBINO, JAPANESE AMBASSADOR AT ST. PETERSBURG.

at Port Arthur. Vladivostok could not be approached. And for the Japanese to march forward into Manchuria to fight the Russian host would be to invite the sort of disaster that overtook the French under Napoleon when they braved a Russian winter and marched to Moscow.

*It Takes Two
to Fight.* If, indeed, as seems likely, the Russians are determined not to meet Japan in a square test of battle either on the sea or on the land, but, in the failure of diplomacy, are going to pursue the policy of keeping out of the way and avoiding a collision, there is not likely to be much of a war in the near future. All that could happen at once would be—as we set forth in these pages last month—the occupation of Korea by the Japanese, who would scarcely find it feasible, at least for some time, to attack the Russians on the north side of the Yalu River. It is, indeed, somewhat hard to see why the Japanese had not, months ago, occupied Korea in large force, informing the world that it would be necessary for them, in the protection of their interests, to remain in occupation of Korea for as long a time as Russia found it necessary to remain in occupation of Manchuria. If such a step had preceded the recent exchange of diplomatic arguments, it might have been easier to establish a compromise upon the basis of a neutral belt, with the Yalu River as its center,—that stream being kept open and free to the commerce of the whole world, as it ought to be.

boundary line. With such an advantage, he holds that Manitoba in ten years could be producing all the wheat Great Britain would need to import. This would leave us with a surplus on our hands, and we should be obliged to do what we could to develop other markets. Our best safeguard, he is sure, lies in the development of the Oriental demand for our wheat and flour, which has only begun, and ought to have a large future.

He makes some interesting statements as to what it has been possible to do in the way of rates upon flour from Minneapolis to Australia, Japan, and China. By taking advantage of all conditions, and by carrying full loads both ways, Mr. Hill's railroads and steamships have made a rate of 40 cents a hundred pounds for 8,000 miles,—equivalent to one mill per ton-mile. It seems that wheat from Oregon and Washington has been going in rapidly increasing quantities to the Oriental market; and this has so helped to sustain the interior prices of grain that authorities cited by Mr. Hill estimate the effect upon wheat at Minneapolis as an advance of five to seven cents per bushel. Mr. Hill could hardly be expected, in commenting upon the low rates afforded by his great transportation systems, to refrain from some kind of sarcastic allusion to the pending litigation against his companies for combining "in restraint of trade."

MR. JAMES J. HILL, OUR GREATEST MASTER OF TRANSPORTATION SCIENCE.
(Whom Attorney-General Knox calls an "empire-builder and Oriental dreamer.")

Our prediction is, now, as it has been for a good while past, that Russia will stay permanently in Manchuria, but will, by all possible seeming concessions and fair promises, stave off a war.

Mr. Hill on the importance of Our Oriental Trade. The new importance of our trade position in Oriental markets was set forth in a speech last month, with great force and freshness of view, by our greatest authority upon questions of transportation and trade, Mr. James J. Hill, of St. Paul. Mr. Hill was speaking before the Minnesota State Agricultural Convention at Minneapolis. So broad is his outlook, that the whole world is his parish; and his speech showed how, in the minds of the men who shape our larger commercial policies, a series of matters wholly remote from one another and seemingly unrelated may really have a very practical relation to one another. Thus, Mr. Hill made every North-western farmer feel that he himself had an important concern at once in Mr. Chamberlain's tariff campaign in England and in the Japanese-Russian situation in the far East, as well as in various other current problems domestic and foreign. Mr. Hill predicts that Mr. Chamberlain's policy is going to win, and that the proposed preferential tariff in favor of the British colonies will go into effect in the near future. This, he declares, would let Manitoba wheat into Great Britain twelve cents a bushel cheaper than the wheat grown upon our side of the

"IT'S AN ILL WIND THAT BLOWS NO ONE GOOD."
From the Journal (Minneapolis).

The Northern Securities Litigation.

The main case against the Northern Securities Company, as remarked by us last month, has been argued before the Supreme Court; and the business interests of the country are still anxiously awaiting the court's decision. If it adhere to precedents laid down in former cases, it must hold that under the Sherman anti-trust law an agreement

rates between points eight thousand miles apart on his own system, is bound to give broadened horizons to his neighbors. Thus, it is highly interesting to think of the prosperous farmers of our Northwest as watching with keen intelligence, on the one hand, the far-Eastern situation, where we have just saved some trade advantages by securing our open door in Manchuria, and, on the other hand, the British Empire debate on Mr. Chamberlain's policy, whose object it is to shut the door upon our wheat and flour trade in Great Britain. These Northwestern men are the ones who will dictate the next important changes in the tariff and fiscal policies of our government. And they should be heard now.

Iowa's Governor on the Watch-Tower.

Another prominent Northwestern figure of the present day,—also a man of broad views and with a mind of his own,—is Governor Cummins, of Iowa, who last month addressed to the Legislature some vigorous remarks upon the larger trade

ATTORNEY-GENERAL KNOX, BEFORE THE SUPREME COURT, CHARACTERIZED THE PROMOTERS OF THE NORTHERN SECURITIES COMPANY AS EMPIRE-BUILDERS AND ORIENTAL DREAMERS. News item from the Press (Cleveland).

among railroad companies made for the express benefit of the public is as offensive to the law as an agreement of the opposite sort. It appears to be the prevailing opinion among lawyers that the court will not reverse itself; but it is wiser to defer discussion of the principles involved until after the court has made its decision. Minnesota's case was also pending last month.

The Broadened Views of the Northwest.

Meanwhile, it is only fair that the country should recognize the effectiveness of Mr. Hill's great transportation policies, and that the people of the Northwest should accord full credit to that breadth of view with which he adheres to the axiom that what makes the country prosperous is what best serves the railroads themselves. The large outlook of a man like Mr. Hill, who makes freight

GOV. ALBERT B. CUMMINS, OF IOWA.

policies of the United States, and who derided the notion that the present tariff schedules were sacred and beyond Republican criticism. He boldly advocated (what would amount to the checkmating of Mr. Chamberlain's preferential project) the most liberal sort of trade recipro-

mon welfare of the two halves of the English-speaking world. Mr. Carnegie is by no means as confident as Mr. James J. Hill that the Chamberlain programme is going to succeed, although he admits that it is just now carrying the public with it in England. Mr. Carnegie declares that the proposed preferential policy is directed almost solely against the United States. He holds that Canada is an independent fiscal and commercial entity, making her own tariffs and her own trade arrangements with the United States and other countries, and not entitled to better treatment at the hands of Great Britain than this country. He has pointed out in the *London Times* that a discrimination against American foodstuffs in British ports would be regarded here as an act of commercial hostility, and would be followed by prompt reprisals. He suggests that the first step would probably be a suspension of the bonding privilege, by virtue of which Canada's entire foreign trade for nearly half the year passes through our

MR. ANDREW CARNEGIE, PUBLICIST AND PHILANTHROPIST.

city with Canada, showing how vastly more we should gain than lose by a freedom of trade intercourse with our nearest neighbor and best customer. He also advocated a general extension of reciprocity arrangements with other countries. Certainly, if the Republican party does not in the near future see its way to such a position, it will have to take its penalty in the form of drastic defeat at the hands of the people. Mr. McKinley had fully appreciated the need of this new tariff policy. The stupid "stand-pat" phrase as a substitute for careful and frank consideration of our economic policies is precisely the opposite of Mr. McKinley's last urgent advice to Republicans. Governor Cummins is not far wrong as to the necessary position of his party.

ports duty-free, while a very great proportion of her trade for the rest of the year is similarly carried on through Portland, Boston, and other of our Eastern ports. He assumes that suspension of the bonding privilege would just about offset the preferential scheme. But if that were not sufficient, he believes the United States would carry further the tariff war, to the complete discomfiture of the Chamberlain policy. Mr. Carnegie regards the future of Canada as inevitably North American, and predicts ultimate continental union. Meanwhile, he is always and everywhere the advocate of close and harmonious relations between England and the United States; and he spoke last month at the conference in Washington on international arbitration,—the particular object of which was to promote an arbitration treaty between the United States and the United Kingdom. But while a warm advocate of such a treaty, Mr. Carnegie does not regard the present season as favorable for its adoption; and he would doubtless admit that

We have another American, Mr. Andrew Carnegie, whose views are always worth having upon the larger questions of public policy, and particularly upon matters touching the relationships and the com-

*Mr. Carnegie's
Testimony.*

the success of the Chamberlain discrimination policy would hurt the chances of such a treaty, in the next year or two, quite as much as the conditions of a Presidential year would stand in its way at the present time.

The Chamberlain Campaign in England. The Chamberlain policy includes several proposals. The first one looks toward a moderate protective tariff against foreign manufactures. Such a measure, if England regarded it for her own interest, would not be found fault with in the United States, provided it were of equal application to all countries. Apart from this, the Chamberlain plan looks to an additional scheme of duties arranged for the express purpose of being remitted in favor of countries making reciprocity concessions. The third proposal is that which relates to a preferential arrangement with the colonies whereby their breadstuffs and provisions would be admitted to England free, while a considerable tariff would be demanded from the United States and other countries, in return for which Canada and the other colonies would admit British goods on favored terms. Mr. Chamberlain has had the benefit of a superb organization in pushing his campaign up and down England, and has been successful in electing a number of members of Parliament in districts where there had been vacancies through death or resignation. He has also been able to bring together a remarkable body of business men and commercial experts, to the number of sixty or more, representing all the leading branches of industry and commerce, who are now sitting two days a week as an unofficial commission to consider the con-

SIR ROBERT HERBERT, CHAIRMAN OF MR. CHAMBERLAIN'S TARIFF COMMISSION.

(Sir Robert is a prominent director of British telegraph, steamship, and other companies.)

dition of British trade and to lay down the lines of a scientific system for the establishment of protective tariffs and the economic consolidation of the empire. It is a huge and difficult task, but it must be admitted that Mr. Chamberlain has secured exceptionally able men to deal with it. The chairman of this commission is Sir Robert Herbert. There has been a great deal of criticism in England of Mr. Chamberlain's use of the title "commission" for this voluntary and private body, since heretofore that term has been restricted to groups of men named by royal or parliamentary authority.



A COMPARATIVE ALTERATION.

JOHN BULL: "I say, my colonial friend, are you going to lower this wall?"

COLONIST: "Well, not exactly lower it, but I'm going to raise the other part, so that this will be comparatively lower."

JOHN BULL: "Humph! I'll want the same length of ladder as before."—From the *Westminster Gazette* (London).

The Outlook for Chamberlain at the Polls.

While Mr. Chamberlain continues to carry on his movement with an air of tremendous prestige, and while his followers are full of elation and of contempt for their opponents, it is by no means a foregone conclusion that victory at the polls is destined to perch upon these now flaunting banners. While a number of bye-elections have been carried by the Chamberlainites, it appears that these have mainly been in constituencies so strongly Unionist that the Liberals in recent previous elections had not put up candidates. When these alleged Chamberlain victories are summed up and analyzed, they show a very large reduction of the Unionist vote as compared with previous elections; and thus, if they forecast anything, it is the sweeping success of the Liberals and the overwhelming defeat of the Cham-

berlaines in the next general election. But it now seems that it will be the Tory policy not to hold the general election in this coming spring, but to defer it, perhaps, for one or two years, —allowing Mr. Balfour as premier to go ahead with his pending projects of army reform and some other measures not related to this "fiscalitis" campaign of Mr. Chamberlain's. Thus, Mr. Chamberlain, with Mr. Balfour's entire approval, would be free to organize and develop his protectionist movement, and to create for it through his present commission that basis of a working, practical programme which it has hitherto lacked.

*What They
Think in
Canada.*

While in the main it would appear that there is good-will in Canada toward the Chamberlain proposals, the sentiment there is by no means unanimous. Many of the Canadians dislike the imputation that their loyalty to the empire is to be purchased by preferential trade arrangements. The Canadians, indeed, seem much more interested in the idea of securing greater independence than in that of getting themselves more closely tied up with Mr. Chamberlain's so-called "empire-one-and-indissoluble." Being very much disgusted with the way in which they think the present Tory government of England has sacrificed them in the Alaska boundary deal, they want to be sovereign in the sense of making all their other treaties with foreign nations as well as those that have to do with trade and commerce. Having failed in their project for cut-

ting the Alaskan seaboard of the United States into detached strips, they have now set up a novel claim of absolute sovereignty over the waters of the Hudson Bay; and they assert the right to close the broad Hudson Strait to the whaling ships of New England, which alone have had the hardihood to seek those waters for the past two generations. The Hudson Strait averages about one hundred miles in width; while the Hudson Bay, which is far remote from any Canadian population, is a great body of water about six hundred miles wide on the sixtieth parallel of latitude, and about a thousand miles long in extreme measure from north to south.

*The United
States and
the far North.*

The United States, which has paramount interests in North America, and is the only country with either the capital and energy or the population capable of developing the vast unoccupied regions to the north, is scarcely likely, after sixty years of whaling in the Hudson Bay, to admit Canada's pretensions. The rights of the United States in Hudson Bay antedate those of Canada by a great many years. In any case, the substantial interests of this country in those northern waters are of far more importance than the technical claims of Canada to exclusive authority there. Obviously, the destiny of the great unoccupied regions of the northern half of North America is to lie wholly in the hands of the people who are yet to inhabit and develop that land of possible wheat-production and of mineral wealth. When any



A CLEAR UNDERSTANDING.

JACK CANUCK: "Mr. Bull, you settle this fiscal question on its own merits and in your own interests. If he tells you my loyalty depends upon it to any extent, don't you believe him!"

From the *Globe* (Toronto).

AN INCONSIDERATE PATIENT.

MR. BULL: "Sinking rapidly! Nonsense! I never felt better in my life! Look at my figure!"

DR. CHAMBERLAIN: "Figures don't signify. You take my word for it that unless you swallow this specific you're a doomed man."—From the *Globe* (Toronto).

one of the districts from Manitoba westward or northward may choose to seek admission as a State in the American Union, the ties that bind it, through the British North America Act, to the Canadian Dominion will be as ropes of sand. Meanwhile, there is just now a fervor (that, in due time, sound economic considerations will abate) for building short-line railroads to the Hudson Bay, in order to ship wheat to England by a route that is ice-bound more than half of each year. An infinitely better solution for Canada's economic problems is that which Governor Cummins advocates,—namely, an open market in the United States for all the natural and agricultural products of Canada, in return for large favors in the Canadian market for American manufactured goods. Canada is in danger of crippling her resources,—and all to no avail,—in her eagerness to build railroads in the wrong direction, with a view to rendering herself dependent upon a transatlantic market.

"Politics" in Every Current Question. In Canada, at present, as in England and in the United States, the discussion of all public questions is colored, and to some extent strained and warped, by the fact that elections are not far distant, and that party interests must be considered, even at the expense of the country. It is obvious that none of the great leaders in England are discussing the fiscal question in an impartial spirit. They cannot detach the question from the great game of politics. In like manner, the Canadians, who expect a general parliamentary election soon,—although the date had not been announced last month,—are trying to shape every issue in such a way as to bear for or against the retention in power of Mr. Laurier's party. In the United States, the fact that this is a Presidential year thrusts itself into the consideration of every public question, not alone at Washington, but in the State legislatures, and even in municipal affairs. It is not to be wondered at, therefore, that the advocates of a six-year term always begin to write letters to the newspapers when the disturbing influences of a Presidential year have begun to manifest themselves.

Notably in the Panama Question. At Washington, last month, the Panama Canal treaty and its related topics held the first place. The public opinion of the country so clearly and so overwhelmingly supports the line of action taken by President Roosevelt that the ratification of the treaty would be easily accomplished as a matter of course but for the near approach of a Presidential election. Exigencies of the political season tempt many politicians to seek grounds

for opposing the President, lest his unhampered success in a matter of such importance should assure his reelection. If it were not a Presidential year, it would be easy for everybody to admit that the President has done nothing except to carry out the deliberate instructions of Congress. He had been told to arrange for finishing the Panama Canal, and had been intrusted with the money necessary to pay for territorial rights, to buy the assets of the French company, and to set the construction work in motion. It is hardly conceivable that any other man in the Presidential office, Democrat or Republican, would have failed to do exactly what the Roosevelt administration has done to obey the instructions of Congress.

The Reasonable View Prevails. As against the alleged scruples of those Democratic Senators who feel that in recognizing the Panama republic and making a treaty with it we have done a great wrong to Colombia, we had, last month, the testimony of Dr. Herran, the Colombian representative at Washington, who negotiated the treaty with Mr. Hay. He declares that the United States Government had nothing to do with fomenting the revolt of Panama. The people of the South, fortunately, are so much in favor of the canal that they have been able to lay politics aside and look at the facts of the situation as they are. Accordingly, several of the Southern States, through their legislatures, have instructed their Senators at Washington to support the Panama treaty. While a prompt ratification of the treaty would on some accounts be beneficial, there is much reason why this, like all other treaties submitted to the Senate, should be scrutinized with care, and debated thoroughly enough to allow it to be understood in all its bearings. Thus, the Foreign Relations Committee, before reporting the treaty to the Senate, last month, had examined it in detail, with the result of favoring some slight amendments which in no way affect its essential character. Its ratification after a period of debate is now fully expected. If amended, it will, of course, have to go again to Panama for acceptance in its final form. Since a convention for the framing of a constitution began its sittings in Panama last month, the treaty, if amended, would doubtless be submitted to that body.

General Reyes and Colombian Affairs. While the mission of General Reyes to this country had not been productive of any definite results that were made known to the public, this distinguished Colombian found the United States as courteous and hospitable as he could well have wished.

Panama Armed and Ready. It is a mistake to suppose that Panama has been relying wholly upon the strong arm of Uncle Sam for protection. Nor has it looked for home defense to a mere volunteer movement. It has put in force a conscription which provides an army of twelve thousand men. It is to be remembered that such powerful friends of Panama as the French canal company have been in a position to see that there is no lack of arms, ammunition, and supplies. The United States, of course, with its warships on guard, will prevent a landing from transports of hostile troops at Panama or Colon. But the Colombians are supposed to be intending to land troops on their own soil as near the Panama line as possible, and then to march upon the occupied strip through which the railroad runs,—cutting their tedious way through forests and mountain fastnesses. The Panama leaders, however, say that there are only three mountain passes available for entrance of Colombian troops, and that a fraction of the Panama army can hold these passes against any number of invaders.

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A NEW PICTURE OF GEN. RAYANI REYES.

He was treated with due deference by Secretary Hay and the officials at Washington, but was also made to realize that what had been done could not be undone; and that the United States could not possibly negotiate with Colombia touching any plan for the suppression of the republic of Panama, which had already been recognized by the principal powers of the world as well as by our own government. There is in some quarters the impression that Colombia will sooner or later receive a certain pecuniary consolation for her loss of territory, provided she abstains from violent proceedings. Doubtless, one useful effect of General Reyes' visit to this country and his prolonged sojourn in Washington was to give the Colombians time to abate their hostile mood, while waiting for some result of their leader's visit to the north. It became clear later in January that General Reyes and the Colombians had been wholly misled by a few newspapers as to American opinion.

Colombian Preparations. That the Colombian Government is at last humoring the warlike sentiment of the people by making pretense of an impending struggle is not a mere matter of rumor. The Bogota newspapers have published a long appeal from President Marroquin to the public for liberal contributions toward the preparation of the army for the coming war. It was reported last month that the Colombian Government had bought an American

From the London Graphic.

DRILLING THE SOLDIERS IN PANAMA.

steamer or two, and was negotiating for others at New Orleans and San Francisco,—presumably intending to use them for purposes of transport. The action of the United States at the present time must be limited to guarding the railroad and preventing the landing of troops near either terminus of the line. Colombia's moving of soldiers and supplies to portions of her own territory, whether islands or mainland, in the vicinity of Panama would meet with no interference from our government. Thus, some weeks ago the Colombians landed a considerable number of troops on the island known as Old Providence without opposition from our navy. The people of that island have since petitioned the republic of Panama to annex them, but their request has been denied, on the ground that Panama has no means for protecting them in an emergency. Several hundred Colombian troops, early in January, were also landed on St. Andrews Island, which, although well to the northward and lying off the coast of Nicaragua, like Providence Island happens to belong to Colombia. This island, also, seeks annexation to Panama.

*Politics
in
Colombia.*

It is plain that Panama would be weakened rather than strengthened by further acquisitions of territory at the present time. Her constitutional convention began its work in a spirit of harmony, and it is believed that political dissensions will not be allowed to cloud the otherwise fair skies under which the new republic begins its career. In Colombia, on the other hand, the situation is likely to be very much affected by dissensions of a political nature. It seems that the presidential electors chosen early in December, after General Reyes had started for this country, are in favor of making him president, by a considerable majority. They will meet in the present month of February to cast their votes. If his mission were known in Colombia to have been a total failure, or if he should strongly insist upon maintaining peace, it is quite possible that the electors would change their minds and make somebody else president. His lingering in this country might have been due, in part, to a preference not to return to Colombia to face an awkward situation and possibly precipitate an attempt to invade Panama.

*Panama
and
Arbitration.*

Some of the friends of arbitration have been desirous to have the Panama question, in some shape or other, submitted to the Hague tribunal. Obviously, however, no question affecting the sovereignty of Panama could be submitted, nor could any question that involved in any manner the propriety of every step taken by the Government of the United States. In nothing else was our delegation at the Hague Conference so careful as in reserving for the United States the right to deal in its own way with all questions in our hemisphere, in so far as these were in any manner affected by the Monroe Doctrine. We should certainly not think of submitting to any tribunal the interpretation of our Isthmian policy, nor yet the definition of our rights and obligations under the treaty of 1846. There is one question, and probably no other, which could be with propriety referred to The Hague. That question has to do with the extent to which Panama might fairly assume a portion of the foreign debt of Colombia.

*Our "Good
Offices" Be-
tween Colombia
and Panama.*

As showing the disposition of some of the men at Washington who will support the treaty, Senator Hale, of Maine, last month offered a resolution requesting the President of the United States to tender his good offices toward the peaceful adjustment of all questions between Colombia and the republic of Panama. It has been the wish of the

THEY WOULD LIKE TO GET IN.

("The islands of San Andres and Providence want to join the Panama republic."—News item).—From the *Leader* (Cleveland).

Senator Augustus O. Bacon, of Georgia.

Senator Edward W. Carmack, of Tennessee.

TWO LEADING OPPONENTS OF THE PRESIDENT'S PANAMA POLICY.

administration to maintain good relations with Colombia, and to help bring about a situation under which Colombia would recognize the independence of Panama. Although the treaty was not before them, being in the hands of its Foreign Relations Committee until the 19th, the Senators through the first half of January debated little else than the Panama question in one shape or another. The opposing Democrats made it clear that they wished to defeat the treaty in order to oblige the President, under the Spooner Act, to take up the Nicaragua route. The Republicans, on the other hand, in reply, declared that this course could not in any case prevail, because they would pass a new bill repealing the Spooner Act and definitely selecting the Panama route. Mr. Carmack, Mr. Tillman, Mr. Daniel, and several other Southern Senators besides Mr. Gorman, were conspicuous in the debate against the Panama treaty, while among the Senators supporting the administration Mr. Spooner was the most eloquent and convincing, with Mr. Lodge, Mr. Aldrich, and various others very active. The general effect of this preliminary debate was to strengthen the position of the President and to make it probable that less time than had been expected would be needed for the final debate in executive session. The Democrats, by the 20th, had found that the South demanded ratification.

Mr. Root
on a
Possible War.

On January 12, after a cabinet meeting, Secretary Root had issued a statement emphatically denying that the Government was preparing to send troops to the Isthmus to fight Colombia. He declared that "no state of war exists between the two countries; no inauguration of hostilities is contemplated by this government; no preparation for war is being made." Mr. Root went on to say that the President and the Secretary of State had done their best to convince General Reyes and the Bogota officials of the friendly intentions of our government, and of their readiness to use their good offices in the settlement of any questions in dispute between Colombia and Panama. He also said that this government would be in no haste to respond to Colombia's challenge if war should be declared against us. He reminded the public that Colombia was alone responsible for what had happened, and had been fully forewarned. Sooner or later, he said, they must recognize the force of accomplished facts; and, in conclusion, he said: "We have done them no wrong; we would like to be of service to them; if they are wise, they will not put it out of our power to help them by any act of rashness and violence." Of course, the new general staff of the army, and the heads of the navy, knew just what to do in case of an emergency.

Senator Nelson W. Aldrich, of Rhode Island.

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Senator Henry Cabot Lodge, of Massachusetts.

TWO CONSPICUOUS ADVOCATES OF THE PRESIDENT'S PANAMA POLICY.

South American Apprehensions. The pretense on the part of some of the opponents of the canal, here at home, that the South American countries are in a highly inflamed state of prejudice and antipathy against our government for its determination to build the Panama Canal, is not borne out by the facts. If there is to be any serious prevalence of such a state of mind in South America, however, it will be due principally to the false and mischievous attacks made in this country upon the motives and policy of our government. South America has long been accustomed to have the United States in practical control of the trade focus at Panama; and all South American countries will reap substantial gains when we open and manage this ship passage. Nobody in this country dreams of annexing any portion of South America. Control of the canal and dominance in the Caribbean Sea would suffice to assure the Monroe Doctrine.

The President's Message of January 4. In view of the inquiries by Senator Hoar, and also by various Democratic Senators, President Roosevelt thought it well to send a special message to Congress telling it *in extenso* what had been done in pursuance of the Act of June, 1902, which provided for an oceanic canal and authorized the President to utilize the Panama route if possible. This message forms one of the great public docu-

ments relating to the whole subject of the efforts to provide a water passage between the Atlantic and the Pacific. Nothing could well be more cogent than the President's review of the preliminary situation, in which he shows that this country had finally determined that a canal was to be built, that the work was to be done without further unnecessary delay, and that the Government of the United States was to be in substantial control of the canal. Thereupon he reviews the generous spirit in which the Hay-Herran treaty was arranged on our part, and discusses the possible alternatives after Colombia's rejection of the treaty. He declares that he had intended to consult Congress as to whether it would not be proper to proceed in any case to dig the canal; and refers to eminent international jurists who hold that we should have been justified in taking that course. But this appeal to Congress was prevented by the outbreak of revolution in Panama. The President shows that the imminence of such a revolution was a matter of common notoriety, and states conclusively that our government had not been in any manner connected with the movement. He details the steps taken on our part to guard the Isthmian railroad, and to keep that part of Panama from being the theater of hostile operations. We had only forty-two marines available for landing, but these kept the peace.

This opposition has been skillfully managed, and has usually manifested itself by playing one scheme against another to gain time. And it has always been easily able to find its own newspaper organs. As for the President, he has been simply carrying out the instructions of Congress and the will of the whole country. And whether or not it will really pay to build the canal in this age of railroads,—and many able and sincere men are confident that it will not,—the President has made it clear to all reasonable and disinterested men that he has behaved honorably and done his duty. As for the Democrats who really want a canal, their better policy would have been to cooperate so fully with the President as to keep the canal question strictly non-partisan.

SENATOR JOHN C. SPOONER, OF WISCONSIN, THE
DEFENDER OF THE PANAMA POLICY.

*To Build
or
Not to Build!*

The President concludes his message by stating bluntly that the recognition of Panama as an independent republic is not the question actually before this government. The only question is whether we shall build the canal. It is, of course, obvious to everybody that if the Panama project as now arranged for should be defeated, there would be no possibility of any canal at all. We may add as our deliberate opinion that this hope of preventing the construction of a waterway to compete with the transcontinental railroads is the chief impelling motive of certain prominent newspapers of this country in their attacks upon the President, and in their prodigious efforts to defeat the treaty. Nor have we much doubt as to the course these newspapers would have taken under different circumstances. Thus, if the President had followed the opposite course, refused to deal with the new Panama republic, and undertaken to build the canal by the Nicaragua route, these papers would have been as denunciatory as they are now, and would have clamored unceasingly for Panama and the protection of the young republic. It is too much to expect that nobody would remember the efforts made through a long series of years by railroad interests to defeat all canal projects.

SENATOR HENRY W. TELLER, OF COLORADO, WHO
OPPOSES THE ADMINISTRATION.

*Presidential
Politics.*

If the Panama business was the dominant topic in Congress, it held only a secondary place in the newspapers during the month just passed. No topic could compete with Presidential politics. On the Democratic side, there was the launching of new booms and the constant maneuvering for the protection and development of those booms which had been earlier exposed to the vicissitudes of a hard winter. On the Republican side, there was constant excitement and diversion to be found in the marvelous performances of the cliques of politicians operating everywhere in the country under the guise of the "Hanna movement," and said to be encouraged and di-

rected, in the main, by the agents of the great trusts and the emissaries of Wall Street financiers and speculators. What is called the "Hanna movement" is not to be understood as a straightforward effort to nominate Mr. Hanna for the Presidency. It is, rather, a widespread coalition for the defeat of the Republican voters of the country who wish to renominate President Roosevelt. The "Hanna movement" is not a Republican affair, but is essentially non-partisan. Many of its foremost promoters are well-known Democrats. They have a perfect right to act in politics as they may think best. The only thing for which Senator Hanna himself might be thought blameworthy,—in his position as the center and the directing mind of this non-partisan anti-Roosevelt movement,—has been his retention of the chairmanship of the Republican National Committee. The Roosevelt men could not be expected to view without concern his use of the political machinery he controls as chairman, in an effort to secure on behalf of the "Hanna movement" the majority of the delegates to the National Republican Convention, which is to meet at Chicago on the 21st of June.

The "Trusts" in Politics. This movement seems to have been set on foot chiefly by Wall Street. Among its active agents,—not merely last month, but many months ago,—were Democrats of commanding influence in the spheres of transportation and industry. Through their political agents in various States, these men can exercise influence upon the holding of conventions and the choosing of delegates in one party as well as in the other. One of the deliberate methods of the "Hanna movement,"—as determined upon, not last month, but many months ago,—was so to shape the political situation in different States as to prevent the calling of early conventions. By delay, it was hoped to create as much confusion as possible, and to increase the chances of securing uninstructed or Hanna delegates to the conventions held at a later date. It has been customary to issue the call for the national convention, which defines the method of electing delegates, immediately after the holding of the meeting of the National Committee that fixes the time and place of the convention. This meeting, which chose the date of June 21, was held at Washington on December 12. The "call" should have been issued the next day. So far as Chairman Hanna's function was concerned, it involved nothing more than signing his name. He postponed the matter, however, in the face of thousands of inquiries, until finally there arose a clamor all over the country, with steps taken by Republicans in

various States to proceed on their own initiative to hold their conventions and choose their delegates. The situation was finally beyond Mr. Hanna's control, and was reacting so harmfully against the Hanna boom, that the call was finally promised for Monday, the 18th, and actually issued ahead of time on the evening of Saturday, the 16th, being only thirty-four days past due. All of which was, undignified, at least.

*Not a
Republican
Movement.*

It cannot be too clearly understood that the "Hanna movement" is not, in one sense, a Republican movement at all, but a deeply laid and strongly supported scheme on the part of the great corporations to capture the Republican National Convention. Except as promoted by these non-partisan agents of the corporations, there has been little if any discernible popular sentiment anywhere among genuine Republicans for the nomination of any Republican except President Roosevelt. This is true to so marked an extent that even if the Hanna combination should be able to dictate the votes of a majority of the delegates to the Chicago convention, it is not at all likely that any other candidate than the President could be nominated. The convention would not run the risk of bringing upon the Republican party the most overwhelming defeat of its history merely for the sake of giving the syndicates the satisfaction of preventing Mr. Roosevelt's nomination. But the genuine Republicans of the country will prefer to be in control of their own convention.

*Wall Street
and the
Republican
Party.*

And they are likely to succeed, although it was evident last month that they would have to fight vigorously to save the party from its insidious foes. Nothing could have been more superficial than the notion that this was a struggle between zealous supporters of rival candidates for the Presidency. It was nothing of the sort. It was not an attempt in good faith to nominate Mr. Hanna, but a scheme to prevent the Republicans of the country from carrying out their well-known intention to nominate Mr. Roosevelt. It is only the ill-informed who suppose that this movement was anything else except the outworking of the Wall Street determination, entered upon more than a year ago, to get rid of Roosevelt. Non-partisan Wall Street had taken to itself the credit for twice defeating Mr. Bryan. It had certainly, in 1896 and again in 1900, put immense sums of money at the disposal of Mr. Hanna as the chairman of the Republican National Committee. It had come to regard itself as all-powerful in the making and unmaking of



WALL STREET IS STILL BLOWING ANTI-ROOSEVELT BUBBLES.
From the *New-York Tribune* (Duluth).

Presidents ; and so it took for its task this year the defeat of President Roosevelt. If the mere personal details were disclosed, it would appear that men calling themselves Democrats were rather more active than men nominally belonging to the Republican party in the attempt to dictate the Republican nomination.

*Wall Street
and the
Democrats.*

These very same men, meanwhile, are just as active in trying to dictate Democratic candidates as in trying to defeat President Roosevelt. Thus, if Democrats well known in Wall Street have cooperated importantly in the so-called Republican "Hanna movement," it is similarly true that certain eminent Republicans in Wall Street have participated in the launching of at least two of the booms of so-called "conservative" Democrats. Wall Street of late has had so much trouble of its own that it is now in no condition to play its political game very astutely. Yet even at the worst, its influence and power are very great. Within the Republican party, aside from this wider movement to defeat Roosevelt which has placed itself under the auspices of Senator Hanna, there is, of course, an organization of politicians that is working in good faith for Mr. Hanna's nomination. If Mr. Hanna indeed should be nominated, his only chance of election would lie in the Democratic choice of a radical like Mr. Bryan or Mr. Hearst. But Wall Street is willing to have a "conservative" Democrat, and backs Mr. Hanna only to shelve the President.

*The
Democrats
Still Seeking.*

The Democratic National Committee, which met at Washington on January 12, had fully expected to choose Chicago as the place for the convention ; but by a sudden reversal of plans St. Louis was chosen, and the date was fixed for July 6. It was reported that the committee had not realized the strength of the Hearst movement until it met at Washington. It then abandoned Chicago,—where Mr. Hearst publishes one of his daily newspapers, and where "Hearst clubs" already abound,—as affording too favorable an environment for that candidate. No preliminary talk will be conclusive ; and the St. Louis convention will have a number of rival candidates presented for its choice. It will have two weeks in which to consider which of its candidates can best meet the ticket nominated by the Republicans at Chicago. The Hanna boomers say that in case of their success they hope the Democrats will nominate Mr. Hearst. This they believe would of necessity drive conservative interests, however reluctantly, into the Hanna fold. The whole situation in both parties is full of interest to the plain citizen who has some public convictions, and who is not in politics either as a game or for his own pocket. This is preëminently a year in which the citizen should think carefully, act conscientiously, and insist upon taking some part in the local conduct of his own party.

*Some
of the
Candidates.*

The call for the Democratic convention was promptly issued last month. Mr. Bryan had returned from his trip to Europe, and, while not a candidate for the nomination, was evidently prepared to devote the year to Democratic politics. A political dinner early in January, given in honor of Mayor McClellan, of New York, brought together many prominent Democrats, and was intended to promote harmony, and to sound a keynote or two for the national campaign. Mr. Cleveland was expected, but sent a letter instead. The attempt to make Tammany's victory in New York City appear a brilliant and fortunate stroke for the national Democracy was not an entire success. Mr. Olney, of Massachusetts, formerly Secretary of State, attended the McClellan dinner and paid an impressive tribute to Mr. Cleveland as the party's most desirable leader. Mr. Olney's own candidacy has now been declared in a formal manner by the Democrats of Massachusetts. In spite of Mr. Cleveland's refusal to be a candidate, the mention of his name continues throughout the country. The boom for Judge Parker, of New York, is antagonized by the radical Democrats, partly on the ground of its having been

launched under the same identical auspices as the "Hanna movement" in the other party. This year, for the first time in the history of the country, we are witnessing the projection into national politics,—in a well-organized and deliberate fashion,—of that system under which the corporations of New York have for years patronized impartially both of the party machines in local and State politics. It is very possible that the syndicates may capture one or the other of the national conventions. Their attempts upon the Democracy, however, have to be cautious and well concealed, because of the two-thirds rule. It is much easier to get the simple majority necessary to control a Republican convention than the full two-thirds required to nominate in a Democratic convention. Mr. William R. Hearst's candidacy seems to be directed toward the securing of the one-third necessary to put the radical veto upon an ultra-conservative nomination at St. Louis. The element that makes for uncertainty in both conventions is the "solid South," which has incomparably more influence than fairly belongs to it in a Republican convention, and nothing like the commanding weight it ought to have in the grand conclave of the Democrats.

In New York City. Mr. Charles Murphy, the new boss of Tammany Hall, is assuming a large place in the councils of the Democracy by reason of having carried the municipal election. His associate, State Senator McCarren, who leads the Democracy of Brooklyn, has also become a figure of note, and is talked about as the manager of the next national campaign. It is understood that Mr. Murphy would like to secure the nomination of Mayor McClellan for the Presidency. The most prominent of the mayor's appointments is that of Mr. William McAdoo, formerly Assistant Secretary of the Navy, to be police commissioner. Dr. John McG. Woodbury has been held over, for the present, from the Low administration to carry on the street-cleaning department. Mr. McClellan's appointments, as a whole, are in painful contrast with those of his predecessor. Under Mr. Low, the department heads were selected for character, capacity, and preëminent fitness for their work. Under Mr. McClellan, nearly all the appointments have been made as rewards to Tammany politicians of the district-leader type. Nevertheless, much of the good work of the Low administration has left its permanent impress upon the conduct of the several departments. Dr. Lederle, the retiring Health Commissioner, will be utilized in an advisory capacity by his successor.

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HON. WILLIAM M'ADOO.

(New police commissioner of New York.)

In New York State.

There is seldom a time when there is not a brisk fire under the pot of New York State politics. The present winter has witnessed the passing over from Senator Platt to Governor Odell of the more active management and control of the machinery of the State Republican organization. The Legislature is in session, with questions of Erie Canal enlargement and other topics of importance to consider. A governor is to be elected in November, and several candidates have already been brought forward by their friends. Since the opposition has what it believes to be a fair chance of carrying New York State this year, the Democratic pot is boiling as vigorously as the Republican. It is well to remember that under the surface of all this political turmoil in the great State of New York splendid work goes forward steadily for the bettering of human conditions. Colossal efforts are making in New York City to provide schools for all the children. Traveling libraries, nature-study methods, better processes in farming, telephones, trolley cars, and many other innovations are fast improving the conditions of life among the people outside of the great cities. If the politicians are not as great and good as they ought to be, most of them are really anxious to be of some public service, and sooner or later they put their shoulders to the wheel and give practical effect to some well-considered project of reform. The subject of commanding, national importance with which the Legislature at Albany must deal in the next few weeks is that of trans-

forming the Erie Canal into a great waterway at a cost of more than a hundred million dollars. The people have approved the project at the polls, but the Legislature must perfect the details.

Farther West.

The Mississippi Valley finds itself this year in a state of prosperity and contentment greater, at least, than that of any other extensive region on the globe. Governor Herrick has entered auspiciously upon his administration of the affairs of Ohio, and the large Republican majority in the Legislature has made Mr. Hanna's second election to the Senate last month a very different affair from his first election, several years ago. It is natural that Ohio and Indiana should have been made very active centers of the Hanna Presidential boom. Senator Beveridge will be returned in Indiana.

The Chicago Disaster.

The great calamity that befell Chicago in the fire at the Iroquois Theater on the afternoon of December 30, 1903, threw all other topics into the background for many days. A fire, originating above the stage, spread rapidly and caused an irresistible panic. The number of lives lost reached 588. The audience was made up principally of women and children, many of whom belonged to prominent families. The whole city was plunged in grief, and the whole world shared in the sorrow and manifested its sympathy. The theater was a new one, and was regarded as the best of any in the city in its method of construction. But inquiry soon proved that it was defective in its provisions for safety. Further examination, moreover, showed a similar condition in other places of amusement, with the result that all the theaters in Chicago were closed by order of the mayor, pending their compliance with certain provisions of the law. A number of churches and other places of assembly have also been closed, as lacking proper exits and other safeguards. Chicago's experience led all the other cities and towns of the United States, and many in foreign countries, to a searching examination of their own theaters. There has resulted a much stricter enforcement of laws, as well as the adoption of better safety devices, in thousands of theaters and places of assembly. It has come to be regarded as necessary that theaters should be provided with a drop-curtain of asbestos or of jointed metal, in order to protect the audience against a fire originating on the stage. While this is good in its way, it is not enough. Attempts to make the scenery and various stage properties non-combustible have proved futile. Oscar Hammerstein, of New York, comes for-

ward with a simple but original and valuable suggestion. He would place above the entire stage a series of parallel perforated water pipes, supplied from two capacious tanks. By such a device, the stage could be effectively flooded in a few seconds. This arrangement for safety, not as a substitute for others, but in addition to them, ought to go far toward making such an occurrence as the Chicago disaster an impossibility in the future.

The Yearly Postal Reports. The annual report of the Postmaster-General, which usually appears in November, was delayed on account of the investigations of fraud, and was made public on January 10. Mr. Payne declares that the investigation conducted by the Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General, Mr. Bristow, "has resulted in a complete reorganization of some of the bureaus of the department, and it is hoped has eradicated all dishonest, irregular, and criminal practices which the investigation has developed as having been in existence for several years." The income of the postal department for the last fiscal year was, in round figures, \$134,225,000. The expenditures were \$138,785,000. It is alleged that the railroads are enormously overpaid for carrying the mails. A moderate abatement of this abuse would not only remove the deficit, but would also provide a surplus with which to extend the free-delivery service. The department's zeal in trying to save money by curtailing what it regards as abuses of the pound-rate privilege accorded to second-class matter would be less subject to criticism if there were visible any attempt to save money at the other end, inasmuch as it is believed that the Government loses dollars by overpayment to the railroads where it saves cents by its rulings about second-class matter. Congress has naturally given some time to the debate of the conditions revealed by the Bristow report. A number of prosecutions are pending, and some convictions have already resulted. It will be some time before any summing up can be made of the outcome of the attempt to bring the post-office rascals to punishment. A matter of interest prominently mentioned in Mr. Payne's report is the project for greatly expanding the postal facilities in New York City. The whole country suffers from the congestion of business in the New York City post-office. It is proposed to provide a large additional post-office in connection with the great terminal station of the Pennsylvania Railroad system, and still another over the New York Central tracks, in connection with the vast improvements soon to be made at the Forty-second Street terminal. As the

financial center and publishing center of the country,—as well as the receiving and distributing center of the mails from European countries,—New York ought to be provided with every possible facility for prompt and efficient postal service.

*General
Young's
Career and
Retirement.*

In the sphere of the War Department and the army, the item of most prominence has been the retirement, on January 9, of Lieut.-Gen. S. B. M. Young, who succeeded General Miles as the head of the army and assumed the duties of the new chief of staff on August 8, 1903. The retirement of this admirable officer from the active list was followed by the promotion of Maj.-Gen. Adna R. Chaffee, who is now lieutenant-general and chief of staff, and who will not reach the retiring age for three years. At the same time, there were various other promotions. Brig.-Gen. George L. Gillespie was made a major-general and the assistant to the chief of staff. Brigadier-Generals Bates, Randolph, and Kobbe were made major-generals and retired. Colonel Story succeeds General Randolph as chief of artillery, and Colonel Doge succeeds General Bates as paymaster-general. The general order issued by Secretary Root on General Young's retirement pays a high tribute to that officer's forty years of efficient and devoted army service. Young enlisted as a private in April, 1861, and rose through all grades to be a colonel at the close of the war,—brevetted brigadier-general of volunteers in April, 1865. He then entered the regular army as a second lieutenant, and performed long years of hard service in the frontier Indian wars. His active and successful service in Cuba, in 1898, is readily remembered, as is also his command of the cavalry of Law-

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LIEUTENANT-GENERAL ADNA R. CHAFFEE, U. S. A.

(Who has succeeded Gen. Young as Chief of Staff at Washington.)

ton's division in the Philippine campaign when in his sixtieth year. Since then he has served as first president of the Army War College Board and the first chief of staff and lieutenant-general of the reorganized army.

*General
Chaffee,
the New Chief.*

General Chaffee, who was an Ohio boy of eighteen or nineteen when the Civil War broke out, instead of joining the volunteers with his friends and neighbors, enlisted as a private in the regular army. This fact makes his rise to the highest place an absolutely unique thing in our military history. He served for twenty-seven years in

the Sixth Cavalry regiment. Promotion in the regular army is a slow thing for a man in the ranks, and Chaffee was not a captain until two years after the end of the Civil War. His rapid advancement has come since the outbreak of the war with Spain. He made himself famous when he led the relief expedition to Peking. The allied forces could hardly have been got under way but for the decision of Chaffee to go alone with his United States troops if the others continued to hang back. This man for twenty-one years was captain of Company I of the Sixth Cavalry, serving everywhere in Indian campaigns from the Rio Grande to the Canadian line. General Chaffee is an aggressive disciplinarian, a man of simple and solid character, an honor to the United States army and to the military profession.

*Other Army
and
Navy Notes.*

Gen. Leonard Wood's promotion was favorably reported by the Senate committee last month before which it had been under investigation, and it will probably be confirmed by the Senate in due time. The retirement of Secretary Root from the War Department comes at a time when the United States army is in a state of unexampled excellence of organization. Mr. Root's successor, Judge Taft (about whose successful service in the Philippines we publish elsewhere this month an appreciative article sent from Manila), will find in his new field much for which to be thankful to Mr. Root. In the navy, they are actively considering the formation of a general staff like that of the army; and, meanwhile, the progress and the condition of the navy is such as to be a source of just pride and reassurance to the country. Probably no other country has its armed services in a condition anything like so effective as those of the United States, in comparison to numbers of men and quantity of material. It is quite possible that the army and navy of Japan, which are said to be in remarkably fine condition, might come next in relative efficiency. The need of complete reorganization in the British army was shown conclusively in the report of the Royal Commission on the South African War. Three men of courage and capacity have now been selected to draw up a plan for the radical reform of the British War Office. Of these three men Mr. Stead has written for us an interesting account, which we publish in this number of the REVIEW. There is little doubt that the British Government has succeeded in keeping its vast navy very efficient even while the army has become obsolete. There is much question, on the other hand, respecting the essential qualities of the Russian army and

navy. It is well known that the Black Sea fleet is made up of antiquated vessels; so that the alarmist talk last month about moving it through the Dardanelles and the Suez Canal to reinforce Admiral Alexieff in the far East was probably without much basis. Nobody can even guess, until a test may come, whether Russian soldiers can fight as well or better than Japanese. Apparently the form and discipline of the Japanese troops are superior. But then, to the outward eye, the British soldiers in South Africa were far more professional-looking than the slovenly and ununiformed Boers, while in actual test the Boers were the better fighting men.

*Uncle Sam's
Current
Resources.*

The United States Treasury reported a surplus for the first six months of the fiscal year of \$8,400,000 in round figures. Owing to repeal of war taxes and variations in trade conditions, Uncle Sam has of late been very uncertain about his income. He went seesawing through six months, from July to January, with alternate deficits and surpluses. The prospect is fairly hopeful now, and the chances are that he will be from \$10,000,000 to \$20,000,000 ahead on July 1, at the end of the fiscal year. We have now almost two and a half billions of dollars in actual monetary circulation at present, or more than thirty dollars *per capita*. This is more money for each person than was ever in circulation in the United States at any former time. There is not much prospect of currency legislation this year. The marked slackening in business activity has lessened somewhat the demand upon the banks for money, and it is quite possible that during the present year we may not have such apparent need of measures to provide for a more elastic currency as we had in the years 1902 and 1903.

*The
Business of
the Country.*

There is nothing in the depressed business situation that points toward extensive bank failures or a monetary crisis, much less toward a financial panic. The unprecedented prices of cotton have made the agricultural South very buoyant, although the situation has not been favorable for the manufacturers of cotton. It is, in short, to be regarded as abnormal, and therefore of doubtful benefit in the long run. It serves, however, to keep up the spirits of one great section of the country in a season of general slackening. In like manner, good prices and continuously favorable conditions keep the farmers of the West from despondency. They have been helped by a considerable demand from Japan for war supplies. The tremendous falling off in the business of

the United States Steel Corporation, as shown in its report for the last quarter of 1903, necessitated the omission of a dividend on the common stock, and led the company to sharp reductions in salaries and wages, with various other operating economies. The falling off had nothing to do with the methods or policies of the company, but simply with that diminished consumption of iron and steel that occurs in this country every three or four years. Under a sound policy of low prices, the demand already begins to revive. It is true that the steel and iron workers resent the sharp cut from the highest wages they ever received down to something like the bare-subsistence line; and many of them were on strike about it last month. But low wages are better than no work; and it was a great triumph of organization that the steel trust, instead of dismissing most of its men and shutting down its mills indefinitely, was able to keep most of its plants in operation by cutting labor-cost down to meet the changed market for steel products.

*Affairs
in Europe.*

The entire complexion of life in Germany, public and private, is changed for the better by reason of the revival of trade after years of severe depression. Thus, Finance Minister Rheinbeben, in the Prussian Diet, last month, was able to announce a surplus of five and a half million dollars where a deficit of seventeen and three-quarter millions had been expected. A leading topic in Germany was the appearance of the new intimacy between the St. Petersburg and Berlin governments; while France, the formal ally of Russia, was evidently getting closer all the time to Great Britain and Italy. Thus, the conclusion of the arbitration treaty between England and France had been followed by the negotiation of an identical one between France and Italy (signed on Christmas Day), to be followed, doubtless, by one between Italy and Great Britain. All central Europe, in short, has been taking the keenest interest in the tendency of the three liberal maritime powers, Great Britain, France, and Italy, to arrive at a common understanding. Germany has on hand a rather serious and expensive war in her possessions in Southwest Africa, where the Hereros tribes are in lively revolt at a time when the Bondelswarts tribes had been subdued. There is no further adverse news regarding the health of the Kaiser, who has been about as active as usual, and has not ceased to appear in public and to make addresses in a strong, clear voice. Thus, he opened the newly elected Prussian Diet on January 16, in a speech dealing mostly with canal projects.

*Religious
Questions
in France.*

In France, the educational and religious questions continue to occupy the foremost place. Premier Combes manages to keep a strong parliamentary majority behind him in his ever bolder measures against the schools conducted by the religious orders. The most significant news, however, has had to do with a threatened breach between France and the Vatican, which, growing originally out of the school question, has extended to the appointment of bishops. It was announced on January 15 that the French Government had presented an ultimatum to the Vatican saying in effect, regarding the appointment of bishops to five vacant French sees, that the government's selections must be approved at Rome or else they would be officially announced without the Pope's approbation. Further than that, the Papal Nuncio would be ordered to leave Paris, and the whole clergy of France would be forbidden to collect Peter's pence. The final step, still held in reserve, would doubtless be the abrogation of the Concordat of 1801. This agreement between Napoleon and the Pope had the effect of establishing once more the Roman Catholic Church in France, and it granted the French Government the right of appointing archbishops and bishops, who were to be confirmed by the Pope. The money grants of the French Government for the support of Roman Catholic worship have recently amounted to about forty-one million francs a year.

*Educational
Progress.*

Many notes of interest might be brought together here to show the cheering progress of educational work in this country. One of these is the report which shows how great and far-reaching already are the undertakings of the directors of the Carnegie Institution. In the field of the higher education, whether general or special, America's advancement is dazzling the world. It is in the South that there is most need, and also most promise, in the field of rudimentary education for all the children of the poor and humble. The marks of progress shown by the recent meetings at New York of the Southern Education Board and its friends were extremely encouraging. A great leader in this work, President Charles W. Dabney, of the University of Tennessee, is about to go a little farther north. He has accepted a call to be the president of the University of Cincinnati. He is not only an educational statesman, but a prodigious worker, and a man who knows how to produce practical results. We are using a new picture of him as the frontispiece of this number of the REVIEW.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From December 21, 1903, to January 20, 1904.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

January 4.—Both branches reassemble after the holiday recess, and receive a special message from President Roosevelt on the recognition of the Panama republic....In the Senate, the administration's policy in Panama is debated....The House discusses a resolution providing for an investigation of the alleged connection of Congressmen with postal scandals.

January 5.—In the Senate, Mr. Gorman (Dem., Md.) introduces a resolution asking the President for information as to United States intervention in Panama.

January 6.—The Senate debates a resolution providing for a post-office investigation by Congress....The House considers a bill relating to franchises in Hawaii.

January 7.—In the Senate, Mr. Morgan (Dem., Ala.) attacks the administration's Panama policy.

January 8.—The House passes a bill appropriating \$250,000 to fight the cotton-boll weevil. (See page 183.)

January 11.—The Senate, in executive session, confirms the nominations of William H. Taft to be Secretary of War, Luke E. Wright to be Governor of the Philippines, and Henry C. Ide to be vice-governor; an extension of the extradition treaty with the Netherlands is ratified.

January 12.—The Senate debates the resolution of Mr. Bacon (Dem., Ga.) asking the President to negotiate a treaty with Colombia to adjust the differences over Panama....The House, in committee of the whole, discusses appropriations.

January 13.—The Senate debates Panama questions....The House, in committee of the whole, strikes out of the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation bill the item for expenses of the Civil Service Commission.

January 14.—The House passes the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation bill, having restored the provision for expenses of the Civil Service Commission.

January 15.—The Senate discusses the Panama question.

January 18.—In executive session, the Senate receives from the Foreign Relations Committee a favorable report on the Panama Canal treaty....The House considers District of Columbia business.

January 19.—The House considers and amends the pure-food bill of Mr. Hepburn (Rep., Iowa).

January 20.—In the Senate, Mr. Morgan (Dem., Ala.) introduces a bill providing for the annexation of Panama to the United States....The House passes the pure-food bill.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

December 21.—The Louisiana Legislature, meeting in extra session, adjourns after creating a boll-weevil commission (see page 183) and adopting a resolution calling upon the Louisiana Senators to vote in favor of the ratification of the Panama Canal treaty.

December 22.—The brief of the State of Minnesota in its appeal in the Northern Securities merger case is filed in the United States Supreme Court.

January 4.—By a vote of 8 to 2, the Senate Committee on Military Affairs decides to report favorably the nomination of Gen. Leonard Wood....The United States Supreme Court decides that Porto Ricans are not aliens....Mayor Harrison, of Chicago, closes 400 public halls and dance halls for failure to comply with building ordinances.

January 8.—President Roosevelt nominates Maj.-Gen. Adna R. Chaffee to succeed Gen. S. B. M. Young, who retires from active service.

GEN. JOHN C. BLACK.

(New president of the United States Civil Service Commission.)

THE BAND OF A COSSACK REGIMENT ON THE MARCH IN MANCHURIA.

(Russian troops march to the music of their own songs, accompanied by cymbals, bells, and tambourines.)

January 12.—The Democratic National Committee decides to hold the national convention at St. Louis, on July 6, 1904.

January 13.—The United States Supreme Court decides that negroes cannot be debarred from serving on grand juries in cases involving crimes committed by members of their race.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

December 21.—The Cuban House of Representatives, by a vote of 40 to 8, passes a bill suspending payment of \$38,000 annually to the Catholic Church for the rental of certain buildings occupied by the government.

December 23.—An official statement is issued on the sound financial position of Argentina....The Chilean cabinet resigns.

December 24.—The Dreyfus Commission in France unanimously recommends revision by the Court of Cassation.

December 26.—The budget for foreign affairs comes before the French Senate.

December 27.—Elections for delegates to the Panama constitutional convention are held....The French Senate passes the budget estimates.

December 28.—Sir George Clarke arrives in London from Victoria (see page 193)....A debate on the Chinese labor question begins in the Legislative Council at Pretoria....A joint meeting of the Japanese cabinet and privy council takes place at Tokyo....The French Chamber of Deputies passes a vote of confidence in the Combes ministry.

December 29.—A Japanese imperial ordinance is issued at Tokyo guaranteeing a 6 per cent. loan of 10,000,000 yen for the Seoul-Fusan Railway, and 2,000,000 yen to complete the work next year....Unlimited credit

THE LATE GEORGE FRANCIS TRAIN DICTATING HIS RECOLLECTIONS.

is granted the Japanese Government for purposes of military defense.

December 30.—The French Senate passes the budget as voted by the Chamber of Deputies....Etienne Brisson is elected to succeed M. Bourgeois as president of the French Chamber of Deputies.

January 5.—The Cuban House of Representatives passes the lottery bill.

January 15.—Mr. Chamberlain's tariff commission meets in London.

January 16.—Emperor William of Germany opens the Prussian Diet.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

December 21.—Japan asks Russia to reconsider certain points in her answer to the Japanese proposals regarding Korea and Manchuria.

December 24.—Great Britain formally acknowledges the republic of Panama.

December 25.—An arbitration convention between France and Italy is signed in Paris.

January 6.—Russia's reply to Japan's last note is received in Tokyo.

January 7.—The reply of Secretary Hay, refusing to reopen the Panama question, is delivered to General Reyes, Colombia's representative at Washington.

January 9.—Japan, in another note to Russia, reiterates her former contentions....The commercial treaties between China and the United States and Japan are ratified by the Chinese Emperor.

January 13.—Ratifications of the commercial treaty between the United States and China are exchanged at Washington; the treaty is put into effect by a proclamation issued by President Roosevelt.

January 14.—The Czar of Russia announces that he desires peace with Japan.

January 18.—The correspondence between Secretary Hay and General Reyes over the recognition of the republic of Panama is made public by President Roosevelt.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

December 31.—Pope Pius reaffirms Pope Leo's rules for the guidance of the Roman Catholic laity.

December 28.—In a Baltimore & Ohio wreck near Connellsville, Pa., 76 persons are killed.

December 24.—Wagner's opera of "Parsifal" is produced for the first time at the Metropolitan Opera House, in New York City.

December 25.—A severe earthquake shock occurs at Los Angeles, Cal.

December 30.—Fire in the Iroquois Theater at Chicago causes the loss of nearly 600 lives.

January 6.—In a Rock Island collision near Willard, Kan., 20 persons are killed and 37 injured.

OBITUARY.

December 21.—Rev. Dr. Brooke Herford, a distinguished Unitarian clergyman of London, 73.

December 22.—Rev. Dr. Oren Burbank Cheney, founder of Bates College, Lewiston, Maine.

December 23.—Rear-Admiral Edwin White, U.S.N., retired, 60....Judge Pope Barrow, of the Georgia Superior Court, 64....Prof. Felicien Victor Paget, of the University of California, 70....Hiram W. Beckwith, a law partner of Abraham Lincoln, 72.

December 24.—Ruth Miller Hoar, wife of Senator Hoar, of Massachusetts.

December 26.—Señor Giuseppe Zanardelli, a former premier of Italy....Sir Harry Bullard, M.P., 62.

December 27.—Mrs. Lydia Hoyt Farmer, a well-known writer, of Cleveland, Ohio, 62.

December 28.—Sir William Allan, M.P., marine engineer and shipowner, 65....George Gissing, the English novelist, 45....Dr. H. L. Thomas, translator at the State Department, Washington, master of twenty languages, 68....Gurdon Trumbull, a distinguished artist, of Hartford, Conn., 62.

December 29.—Father George Deshon, Superior-General of the Paulist Fathers, New York City, 81.

December 30.—The Marquis of Sligo, 79....Andrew Pattullo, the Canadian politician, 53.

January 1.—Ex-Congressman James J. Belden, of Syracuse, N. Y., 78....Capt. Frederick Pabst, the well-known Milwaukee brewer, 67....Daniel Edward Fiske, widely known as an author and newspaper writer, 81.

January 2.—Gen. James Longstreet, the Confederate veteran, 88 (see page 190).

January 4.—Rufus Blanchard, cartographer and historian, formerly a well-known citizen of Chicago, 83....Mrs. Mary Elizabeth Wormeley Latimer, translator and author, 82.

January 6.—Ex-Justice Joseph F. Barnard, of the New York Supreme Court, 81....Karl Alfred von Zittel, the paleontologist, of Munich.

January 7.—Parke Godwin, the New York author and essayist, 88....Gen. Victor Viquain, a Nebraska pioneer, 67.

January 9.—Gen. John B. Gordon, the Confederate veteran, 73 (see page 190)....Dean Francis Wayland, of the Yale Law School, 78....Ex-Gov. Charles Foster, of Ohio, 76.

January 10.—Jean Léon Gérôme, the famous French painter and sculptor, 80.

January 11.—Ex-Gov. John Young Brown, of Kentucky, 68....Mme. Antoinette Sterling (Mrs. John McKinlay), widely known as a contralto ballad singer, 54.

January 12.—Rev. Latimer Neville, Baron Braybrooke, 77.

January 13.—Col. Charles Denby, of Indiana, formerly United States minister to China, 74....Leo N. Levi, president of the executive committee of the Independent Order of B'nai B'rith, 47.

January 15.—Ex-Gov. Asa L. Bushnell, of Ohio, 69.

January 16.—James L. Blair, formerly general counsel of the St. Louis Exposition.

January 17.—The Hon. Sir Henry Keppell, Admiral of the Fleet, 85.

January 18.—George Francis Train, famous American traveler and writer, 75....C. N. Bovee, a well-known citizen of New York, 84.

January 20.—Prof. Herman E. von Holst, the historian, 68.

Photograph by Rockwood, N. Y.

THE LATE PARKE GODWIN,
OF NEW YORK.

THE LATE J. L. GÉRÔME.

(French painter and sculptor.)



CARTOONS ON LEADING TOPICS OF THE MONTH.

JAPAN: "Don't you ever intend to move?"

RUSSIA: "I was just thinking what would happen to you if I did."

From the *Evening News* (Detroit).

ALL FOR THE UNDER-DOG.

RUSSIA: "There's one bad thing about being so big,—the other fellow gets all the sympathy."

From the *Record-Herald* (Chicago).

JAPAN TO THE GREAT BEAR: "Twinkle, twinkle, little star; how I wonder what you are up to!"

From the *Tribune* (Chicago).

A GREAT MIND-READER.

UNCLE SAM: "The kind o' preferential tariffs you're a-puin' for, Johnny, you know, is this: 'Sammy,' you says, 'you don't put up your tariff any higher agin' me, and,' says you, 'I'll sock up my tariff agin' every blame nation but you. We're all Anglo-Saxons,' you says, and, by gosh, Johnny, you're right."—From the *World* (Toronto).

UNCLE SAM: "I will begin here to nail down the (South American) continent."—From the *Hijas Selectas* (Madrid).

WHEN WE HAVE JAPAN AND RUSSIA BOTH FAILING TO RAISE A LOAN FROM UNCLE SAM.—From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

COLOMBIA: "Hey, there! I'm going to fight, too, maybe, perhaps."

From the *Tribune* (Chicago).

SAFE.

"I will not for one moment discuss the possibility of the United States committing an act of such baseness as to abandon the new republic of Panama."—President Roosevelt.

From the *Post* (Cincinnati).

THE KIND OF A WEAPON COLOMBIA NEEDS.

From the *Times* (Minneapolis).

BE CAREFUL.

Colombia's problem is to make war on the child without disturbing the man.

From the *Post* (Cincinnati).



Books Bad for the German

Philadelphia Street Cleaners

An Explosion Imminent



'I Just Can't Scare Him Away'

PICTORIAL OBSERVATIONS OF SOME OF THE MONTH'S HAPPENINGS.—From the *North American* (Philadelphia).

TWICE UNDER.

GORMAN TO BRYAN: "Say, Bill, if you don't come up again, can I have the boat?"—From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).

GORMAN AND THE PAINTING OF THE ROPE.

From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).

OVERESTIMATING HIS ABILITY.

Signor Gorman in his astounding act of trying to bring two mules together going in opposite directions while performing a dangerous piece of juggling.

From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).

THE DEMOCRATIC MOTH AND THE PANAMA FLAME.

From the *News-Tribune* (Duluth).

W. R. HEARST AS THE GOO GOO MAN.

(Political version.)

Yellow spots in Goo Goo eyes,—
 All little Dems he'll hypnotize;
 Then run away as fast as you can,—
 Get out of the way of the Goo Goo man.
 From the *Times* (Minneapolis).

THE William R. Hearst boom for the Democratic nomination, which for some time had been quite generally ignored by politicians and newspapers alike, made itself both felt and openly recognized last month when it succeeded in frightening the managers out of their intention to hold their convention at Chicago. An

THE DEMOCRATIC "BAD BOY."

CHICAGO: "You will will you, drive my company away with your tricks?"—(Leap-year adventures of Aunty Democracy.)—From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

amusing cartoon on this page represents Miss Chicago as punishing Mr. Hearst for driving away her company. Of the many Hearst cartoons that began to make their appearance, the four on this page are sufficiently typical. In addition to his well-known newspapers in New York, Chicago, and San Francisco, Mr. Hearst has established

AND THE WILLIAMS STILL PURSUED HER.

MISS DEMOCRACY: "First I tried New York, then Chicago, and now I've fixed on St. Louis, they've followed me here."

From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).

WILL JUDGE PARKER BE ABLE TO RIDE THE DEMOCRATIC ANIMAL IF WILLIAM HEARST PLACES A BURR UNDER THE SADDLE?

From the *Times* (Minneapolis).

THE SNOW MAN AND THE HOT SUN.

From the Press (Cleveland).

one at Los Angeles, Cal., has projected one for Boston, and is said to be intending to start one at St. Louis well in advance of the holding there of the Democratic convention, which meets on July 6.



ONLY COMPETENT NAVIGATORS NEED APPLY.

From the Post (Cincinnati).



SUBMARINE POLITICS.

From the Press (New York).



"A BIRD IN THE HAND IS WORTH TWO IN THE SUN."

From the Press (Cleveland).

GOVERNOR TAFT IN THE PHILIPPINES.

BY FREDERICK W. NASH.

AFTER four years of war and struggle and labor, peace has come to the Philippines,—a peace more thorough and secure than ever before enjoyed by the Filipinos, among whom internecine wars and insurrections have been chronic time out of mind. And the man who has done most to bring this about is William H. Taft, the retiring governor of the Philippines, who is soon to be Secretary of War.

President McKinley never demonstrated more clearly his remarkable knowledge of men and political situations than by his selection of Judge Taft to be the first governor of these islands, a post that demanded, not only statesmanship of

the highest order, but also a rare combination of judgment, tact, and the ability to recognize an alien point of view. That all of these qualifications are possessed in a high degree by Governor Taft has been amply demonstrated during his trying administration in the islands. Only those who were acquainted with Philippine conditions three years ago and are familiar with them now can appreciate his accomplishment.

Three years ago, the United States had a large army in the Philippines, and sharp conflicts with the insurgents were of daily occurrence; there was no safety for life and property outside of the garrisoned towns; all government was by military authority, and chiefly by military methods; the great mass of the Filipinos viewed the United States in the light of a selfish and brutal aggressor, and all friendly advances and protestations of good faith were met with secret, if not open, distrust and rejection.

Furthermore, years of war and lawlessness had so impoverished the country and lowered the public morals that a large part of the population was without means of sustenance or the inclination to secure it by legitimate labor. Masquerading as insurgents and patriots, this element had entered upon a campaign of brigandage and terrorism that taxed the resources of the military to the utmost and caused even the most optimistic to doubt the wisdom of attempting to deal with the Filipino on any other basis than that of an outlaw and a savage.

While military government was still in existence and seemed the only safe and practical method of handling the situation for some time to come, Governor Taft, then chairman of the Phil-

GOVERNOR TAFT, MRS. TAFT, AND MASTER CHARLIE TAFT, THEIR YOUNGEST CHILD.

ippine Commission, having made a close study of the conditions, decided that peace and reform could be most readily and permanently effected through the instrumentality of the Filipino himself. In the face of considerable criticism by the military and conservative local interests, he commenced, in September, 1900, to establish municipal civil government in the provinces, appointing natives to prominent positions therein. Filipino officials were carefully chosen for their character, ability, and influence. They were impressed with the idea that the life and prosperity of their people and their own future political preferment depended upon their success in maintaining law and order and administering good government within the territory allotted to them.

On July 4, 1901, Commissioner Taft was formally inaugurated United States Civil Governor of the Philippines. In his address on that date, he announced a beneficent and liberal policy toward the people of the islands, one that extended to them every encouragement to cease opposition to lawful authority and to become good citizens.

—a policy that professed its highest aim to be the welfare of the Filipinos themselves.

To review in detail the work of Governor Taft's administration in the Philippines would require a book, but it may be said briefly that among the most important accomplishments have been—the introduction of a modified American system of government and laws; the establishment of courts that give equal and speedy justice to all classes alike; the organization of the Philippines Constabulary, or native police force, and its formation into an efficient instrument for preserving law and order; the providing of a system of finance and taxation adequate to the needs of the government, yet with due regard to the poverty of the country; relief from the evils of a depreciated and fluctuating currency, by substituting a modern and stable one; the thorough reorganization or new creation of many most important governmental administrative departments and bureaus; the organization of a high-class civil service, governed by modern civil service laws; the extension of an efficient postal service to every

town of importance in the islands by means of the swift steamers of the newly created Bureau of Coast Guard and Transportation; the introduction of modern sanitation and sanitary methods; the improvement of Manila harbor and city; the erection and installment of a public printing plant, a new custom-house, and many other public works.

While the material interests of the Filipino have been advanced, his moral and intellectual welfare have not been forgotten. The Bureau of Education has been a most powerful factor in the advancement of peace, civilization, and good government. The widespread dissemination of knowledge, especially in regard to American institutions and ideals, through the medium of schools and schoolbooks, and the influence of a thousand American school-teachers scattered throughout the archipelago, have been of incalculable aid in pacifying the country and in convincing the natives of the integrity of

purpose which actuated the United States in assuming the burden of their government.

Too much credit cannot be given the influence of Governor Taft's personality in this connection. He has completely dominated the policy of the Philippine Commission from the beginning. He has put in long days and many nights in gaining a mastery of the situation and in meeting the many demands on his time and attention. His grasp of administrative detail has been most comprehensive and thorough. By his tact and kindliness, he has overcome bitter prejudices engendered by war and disappointed political ambitions and turned the opposition of many influential natives into personal friendship and hearty support. He has been an example of broad American democracy, a type of American justice and official integrity. He has won the respect and confidence of the Filipino for himself, and, consequently, for the government he has represented.

1. This is a photograph never published before.

Mr. T. H. Pardo de Tavera. Vice-Gov. Luke E. Wright. Gov. Wm. H. Taft, chairman. Mr. Henry C. Ide. Mr. Benito Legarda.
Mr. Jose Luzuriaga. Mr. James F. Smith.

MEMBERS OF THE PHILIPPINE COMMISSION.

(One member of the commission, Mr. Dean C. Worcester, was absent when this photograph was taken.)

KOREA AS THE PRIZE OF WAR.

BY J. SLOAT FASSETT.

THE world to-day is leading a strenuous life. The race is for commercial supremacy. America, England, Germany, France, and Japan are producing more than they can consume. The contest among the nations is not alone for commercial supremacy, but for commercial opportunity. The demand for new markets is equivalent to a demand for the opportunity to live and to grow. The most attractive undeveloped market in the world is the Asiatic market. The most available method of approaching that market is by the Pacific Ocean. Russia has developed commercially with amazing and startling rapidity during the last fifteen years. She does not yet produce more than she can consume; but she, having already grown to be the greatest economic unit in the world, with rare prescience penetrating the future, realizes the importance to her future welfare of these same Oriental markets which are attracting the attention of America, England, Germany, France, Italy, and Japan. Behind the impending and threatened collision between Russia and Japan over Manchuria and Korea the world sees the shadows of far greater questions,—the mastery of the Pacific, the control of its commerce, the political supremacy in Asia,—and in these questions no nation is more vitally interested than the United States.

AMERICAN INTERESTS.

In fact, Americans, so far as business enterprises and the money invested in them are concerned,

have larger interests in Korea than all the other nations combined. Americans constructed and sold to the Japanese the Chemulpo-Seoul railroad. Americans constructed for the Korean Government (and have not yet been entirely paid for the same), the electric railway in the city of Seoul itself, and some eighteen or twenty miles of suburban roads. Americans have also constructed lighting plants for the city of Seoul, and are investing in the development of a water system for the capital. Americans import into

THE EMPEROR OF KOREA.

(From a late photograph presented by the Emperor to Mr. Fassett.)

Korea immense quantities of kerosene oil, of canned goods, and of cotton cloth. Americans own, in association with English and French capitalists, the largest single enterprise in Korea, and one of the largest in Asia,—a mining concession in the northern part of Korea. American missionaries, also, are doing a magnificent work in Korea. So that American interest is not alone the interest which attaches to exciting and important events, but is based upon the actual conditions of existing trade and property in Korea, as well as upon the future possibilities of the entire Asiatic commerce.

That the relations between Russia and Japan are highly strained, there is no room for doubt. Both nations are highly desirous of the goodwill of the United States. Both nations are extremely sensitive to the attitude of American opinion. Each is extremely jealous lest the United States should, in spite of maintaining theoretically a strong neutrality, give the assistance of its sympathy and moral support to the other. This article is not intended to be either pro-Japanese or pro-Slav. It is intended as a sketch of the general situation as it presents itself just now. War may have been declared before this article shall reach the public.

The exciting causes of war are Manchuria and Korea, and the relations of Japan and Russia to these countries. Manchuria is one of the richest provinces of China. It is three times as large as the island empire of Japan. It has an excellent climate, a fertile soil, and abounds in rich mines of gold and coal, and iron and copper. It has fine harbors, which are, however, not ice-free. The larger portion of Manchuria was overrun and conquered by the Japanese in the war of 1894–95.

THE LAND AND THE PEOPLE.

Korea, however, is the bone of contention. It is the key to the present situation in the East. The strategic importance of Korea arouses a great interest in herself and her people, and in her relations to China and Russia and Japan. It is very difficult to convey to people who have always lived in the midst of our Occidental civilization anything like a realizing sense of the conditions prevailing among an Oriental people like the Koreans, who, until within a very few years, have been living in the atmosphere and in accordance with the customs of life and the habits of thought of the centuries before Christ. The utmost that can be attempted in a paper of this description is a rough sketch of some of the superficial facts with reference to Korea and the Korean people and their political relations.

Korea (which should be spelled with a "K"), is a small peninsula projecting from the south-

eastern coast of Asia southward from Manchuria. It is bounded on the east by the waters of the Japan Sea, and on the west by the waters of the Yellow Sea. From its southern coasts the islands of Tsushima are visible, and from Tsushima the coasts of Japan are visible. Roughly speaking, Korea is from north to south 600 miles long, and from east to west it has an average width of 135 miles. It contains 82,000 square miles, or almost exactly the area of our State of Kansas, being nearly twice as large as the State of New York, and one-third larger than all of New England. The population is estimated as low as 8,000,000 and as high as 16,000,000. Inasmuch as no scientific census is ever taken, and inasmuch as the taxation depends very largely upon the number of people in any given district, it is to the interests of the authorities to whom the taxes are farmed out to suppress as far as convenient the precise number of people in their districts; hence, the population of Korea must be determined largely by guess. It is probable that 10,000,000 is about the proper number.

The parallels of latitude that would pass through the cities of San Francisco, Chicago, New York, Lisbon, Rome, Constantinople, and Peking would pass through the peninsula of Korea. The capital, Seoul, a city of a little over 100,000 inhabitants, is located in about the geographical center of the country, and almost exactly west, or east, of New York. Korea was long known, and is yet known to its inhabitants, as Chosen, and is fancifully called by them "The Land of the Morning Quietness," or "The Land of the Morning Calm." Until very recently, it was also known as "The Hermit Kingdom," because of the seclusion with which its inhabitants had managed to surround themselves until the latter half of the nineteenth century. In 1897, this name was changed from Chosen to Dai Han or Tai Han.

On the eastern coast of Korea, as at Gensan, the tides are estimated at from two to six feet. On the western coast, in the Yellow Sea, they run from eighteen to thirty feet. There are about three thousand miles of seacoast line, the country being bounded on the south and the west by a large number of islands, which constitute a most delightful and picturesque archipelago. Navigation is dangerous because of the tremendous currents and counter-currents among the islands, varying with the different seasons, with the variations of the tide and the variations of the wind, and also because of the frequent fogs which settle over the Yellow Sea during certain months of the year. There are no high mountains in Korea. The rivers for the most part run from east to west, and, owing to the high

A KOREAN RURAL LANDSCAPE.

tides, are navigable to junks and schooners of good size for long distances from the sea. The soil of Korea is fertile and well tilled. The people are good farmers. Their main occupation is agriculture. They raise rice, barley, millet, wheat, sorghum, beans, potatoes, turnips, cabbages, radishes, tobacco, cotton, apples, pears, and small fruits. They raise cattle, chickens, geese, ducks, pigs, and horses, but no sheep or goats. The seas and estuaries of Korea swarm with enormous quantities of excellent fish in great variety; but the Koreans themselves are either too timid or too lazy to follow the sea for a livelihood, and the fishermen of Korea are crowded out by the Japanese, who net and cure immense quantities of fish, which are dried and salted and sent into the interior of Korea and exported to Japan. The climate of Korea is delightful, as a rule. Generally, it is similar to that of the mountain regions of North Carolina.

The people of Korea are not Japanese, and they are not Chinese. They are Mongolian, and have a polysyllabic language with a phonetic alphabet. They have a recorded history, of disputed authenticity, which claims for them a continuous existence as a Korean people of about five thousand years, the earlier part of which, of course, is shrouded in the mists of tradition and fable. As early as three centuries ago, the Koreans had made great progress in the arts. They built ships two hundred feet long and covered them with plates of iron, the iron being hammered into small plates and fastened by small spikes driven into the wood. They made woven

fabrics, and were very skillful in metal work, in the fashioning of jewels, and in the manufacture of pottery. They were far in advance of their Japanese neighbors, to whom they have taught the arts of metal-working, pottery-making, and silk-weaving. Three centuries ago, Japan overran the country and devastated it, transferred whole colonies of artisans to Japan, and broke down forever the military power of Korea. Korea has produced but little literature. Korean students have been largely devoted to Chinese authors. The native literature consists largely of descriptions of scenery and folk-lore.

The people of Korea may be described generally as robust, amiable, industrious, pleasure-loving, and given rather to the arts of peace than to the ardors of war. They are agricultural rather than commercial. They are kindly and generous. They have no national religion, and never have had. Confucianism, so far as regards the worship of ancestors, the reverence for parents, and the dignity of family, has a stronger hold than any other form of religion. Buddhism has always had a languishing existence among them. There is a widespread belief among the people in witches, in spirits, and in devils. There are relics of fetichism. The costumes of the men and the women do not differ widely from those in use thousands of years ago. The universal costume is cotton cloth, bleached and unbleached. In winter, this is padded with short staple cotton which grows in Korea and is carded into pads for the purpose of quilting the clothing of the people. Their

headgear is remarkably varied in form. They have a different form or a different kind of hat for almost every station in life. All the unmarried men in Korea are called boys, and wear their hair in braids down their backs. Marriage may take place at any age from twelve upward, and when a boy is married he is a man. The women of Korea have no legal status. A man may have one wife, and her children are his legitimate heirs; but a Korean may have as many concubines as he may have the ability or the disposition to support.

THE GOVERNMENT.

The form of government to-day is in name imperial. In 1897, after the close of the Chinese and Japanese War of 1894-95, the Korean king assumed the title of "Emperor," so as to enforce upon the attention of his own people the fact that he stood on the same basis as the ruler of Russia, the ruler of China, and the ruler of Japan. His power is unlimited. He has a cabinet of ministers, which constitutes his council. The members of this cabinet are changed by the imperial will, and the imperial will changes oftener than the phases of the moon. The empire is divided into districts and magistracies, which are governed by governors and magistrates appointed by the Emperor. These officers, in their turn, are not responsible to any but the sovereign, and

are not affected by constitutional lets or hindrances of any kind. They have the power of life and death, and of the confiscation of property, subject only to the possible inquiry of the Emperor, whose attention may be brought to their acts by his professional spies and informers, who everywhere are passing up and down among the people. The entire government is based upon a system of squeeze, and the poor coolie is ground into the earth. He has no constitutional or legal protection. He must find his protection under the wing of some neighboring officer or nobleman of rank and power.

There is nothing to prevent any magistrate, at any time, from sending his police runners to apprehend the person of any alleged rich man, convey him to prison, and subject him to torture even to death for the purpose of extorting a part or all of his property. The result is that the average Korean feels no incentive to thrift, and therefore he lives in a hand-to-mouth, free-and-easy sort of way. In abundant seasons, he is fat, and shines with the oil of plenty; in lean seasons, he starves, and dies by the thousands. So it has come to pass that many travelers who are superficial observers have given the Korean the name of idler and loafer, which is far from being a just description. The Korean, when protected, is energetic, industrious, faithful, and reliable. He is susceptible to kindness, and

appreciates mercy and gentleness when he understands that they are not dictated by fear, but flow from a sense of justice. The Korean has a quick and ready mind. He is a good linguist and a good mathematician, and is a most promising subject for development when once he shall be permitted to enjoy a firm, intelligent, and beneficent government.

KOREA'S INTERNATIONAL STATUS.

The position of Korea is unique. She is the youngest of the nations to come into diplomatic relations with the Western world. Her treaties with the United States and England were made in 1882; with Germany, in 1883; with Russia and Italy, in 1884; with France, in 1886; with Austro-Hungary, in 1892. She has no well-established postal facilities or means of transportation and communication. She has only one short railroad, while others are projected, and only a few miles of telegraph lines, and these mostly controlled by foreigners. The means of transportation of men and goods is man-back, pony-back, cow-back, by means of sedan chairs, and by two-wheeled, clumsy bull-carts. She manufactures feebly an insufficient supply of textile fabrics, of pottery, and of metal wares. She exports rice, ginseng, and fish. Korea has never recovered from the blighting ravages of the Japanese conquest of three centuries ago. At no time since then has she had an army worthy the name. She has no military class, no military aspirations, no military aptitude, no military instruction. Her present army, nominally of seven thousand men, is deservedly a laughing-stock and an object of proper ridicule when it is not an object of dread. Her soldiers, poorly equipped and badly paid, instead of being a body for protection, become a band of desperadoes, of which the Emperor, the court, and the people are desperately afraid. The Koreans are not cowards, but they are spirit-broken, resembling in this respect the fellahs of Egypt. Corruption and intrigue have dwarfed even such tardy growth as has come to her since the Western powers opened a way into her ports and interior. Her salvation for the future depends upon the institution of wise government at home and the neutralizing of ambitious projects of other nations abroad. She is designed by nature to be a buffer state.

JAPAN'S CONTEST WITH CHINA OVER KOREA.

The ideal solution of the Eastern question, as at present it manifests itself, would be to put Korea in commission, with her integrity and independence guaranteed by the great powers. For many centuries, she was the vassal both of

China and of Japan. She paid homage to them both, and she paid tribute to them both. She was the pretext and occasion for many a contest at arms between the Chinese and the Japanese people. This contest over Korea culminated in 1894, when China violated her treaty obligations and sent troops into Korea. Japan resented this, and after an engagement in which the *Kowshing*, a Chinese transport, was sunk, Japan formally declared war against China. This war was prosecuted by Japan with great vigor, both on sea and on land, and resulted in an uninterrupted series of victories for Japan. She drove the Chinese armies out of Korea, destroyed or captured all the Chinese navy that ventured into the Yellow Sea, invaded Manchuria and Shang-

THE CROWN PRINCE OF KOREA.

(From a late photograph presented by the Emperor to Mr. Fassett.)

tung, and captured the fortresses of Wei hai-wei and Port Arthur. She was thus in control of the Gulf of Pe-chi-li and the Yellow Sea. The world looked on with wonder and admiration at the fine discipline of the land and sea forces of Japan, and the vigor and efficiency with which the entire campaign was executed. Peace was declared in April, 1895, and a treaty was negotiated at Shimonoseki by Li Hung Chang, aided by John W. Foster, an American, for the Chinese, and Count Ito and Viscount Mutso, for the Japanese. By this treaty, the independence of Korea was recognized by both parties. All of that part of Manchuria which had been overrun by the Japanese armies, including the Liao-Tong peninsula, known as the Regent's Sword, and Port Arthur, was ceded to Japan. Japan also received a heavy indemnity in money, and many other concessions which do not enter into the present difficulties. Japan thus came into possession of a rich territory,—one of the richest in China,—larger than her entire empire. It is now claimed that at the very time that Li Hung Chang consented to affix his name to this treaty he had already come to an understanding with Count Cassini, acting in behalf of Russia, whereby Russia was to prevent Japan from ever obtaining any foothold upon the Asiatic mainland. At all events, Russia acted most promptly. Backed by Germany and France, she brought pressure to bear upon

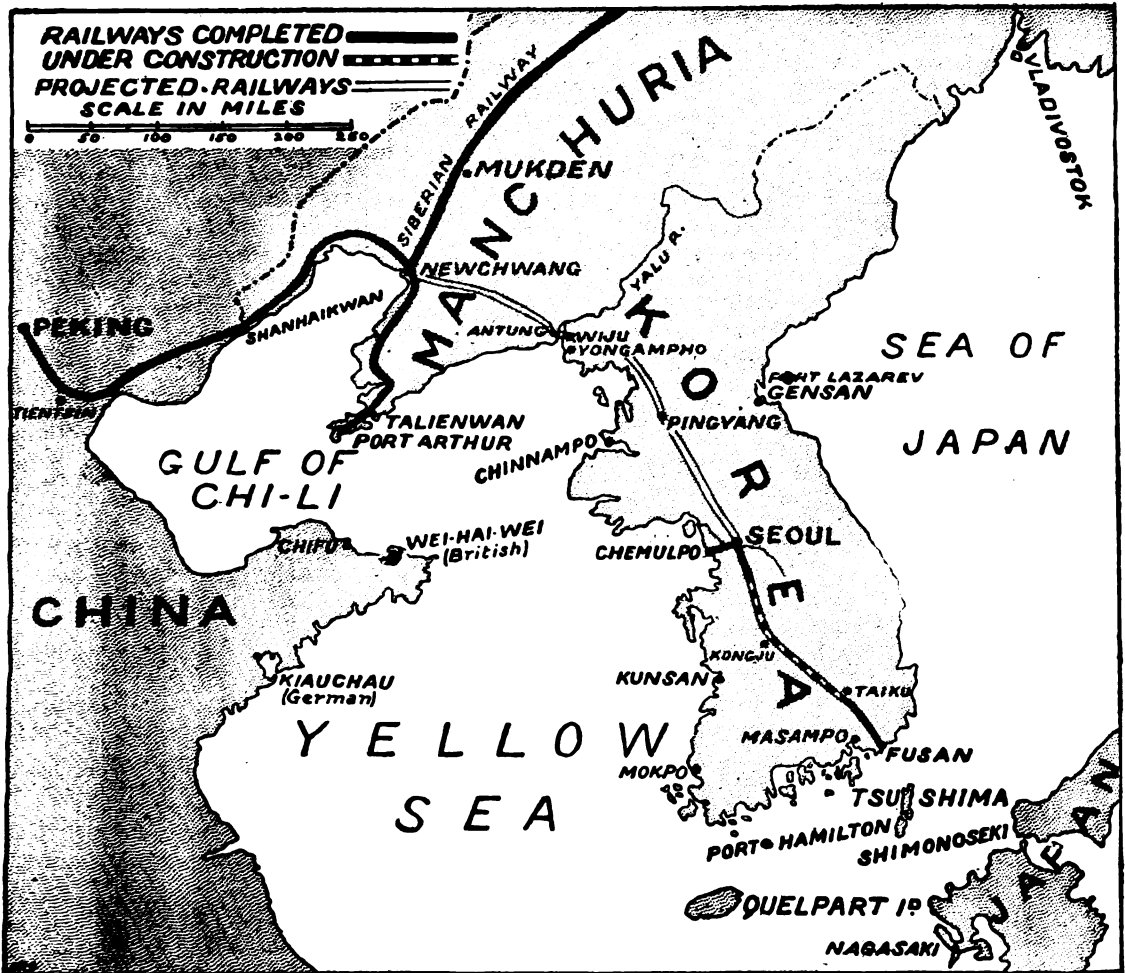
Japan, and upon alleged friends of Japan, which resulted in compelling Japan to abandon all her possessions thus obtained in Manchuria, and to accept in lieu thereof a further indemnity of the paltry sum of thirty million taels. Japan has never recovered her equanimity since this humiliating surrender was forced upon her. She had won the fairest prize that had ever in all her history fallen to her prowess. The pretext was that Japan's occupancy of Port Arthur would be a menace to Peking and a peril to Korea. Japan, however, withdrew in accordance with the insistence of these great powers and the advice of Great Britain, and Russia was permitted to take possession. She occupied Port Arthur and Manchuria, and began spending money in the most lavish manner, by the millions of dollars, upon strengthening the fortifications of Port Arthur, and in constructing a railway through Manchuria.

RUSSIA'S OCCUPATION OF MANCHURIA.

At the same time that Russia was assuring the powers that she was only temporarily occupying Manchuria, and that she meant to evacuate Port Arthur and the country as soon as the country was pacified, she was increasing her expenditures on her army and navy in the East, and pouring out hundreds of millions in the construction of railroads and cities and churches and permanent barracks, and in in-

BUILDING THE RAILROAD BETWEEN SEOUL AND PUSAN.

(It is believed that this line, which the Japanese were pushing with energy last month, when completed, will enable Japan to transport an army into the Korean capital within thirty-six hours.)



MAP OF KOREA, SHOWING THE LINES OF RAILROAD, PROJECTED, UNDER CONSTRUCTION, AND COMPLETED.

ternal development and in facilities for railroad terminals. She has expended, in recent years, with increasing lavishness, since she obtained possession of Manchuria, more than the Boer war cost England in South Africa. She has constructed the best-equipped and best-built branches of the Siberian Railway in Manchuria. She is constantly increasing the numbers of her soldiers, both in Siberia and in Manchuria. She is constructing permanent buildings in the numerous cities which are developing along Manchurian railways. Her people are constructing permanent churches, and are settling upon the farm lands and building homes thereon. All this may be "temporary," but it has the look of permanency. It has never been explained how it was that, if the Japanese occupancy of Port Arthur was a menace to Peking and a peril to Korea, Russian occupancy of the

same territory was not equally a danger and a menace. In 1897, Russia informed an uneasy world that her warships, which had just arrived at Port Arthur, were merely there to pass the winter, that being a convenient harbor for that purpose. They are there yet. Manchuria has become pacified. The time fixed for the evacuation has passed by, and Russia remains. She remains in greater force than ever; and if Russia's past history counts for anything as an aid in interpreting her present intentions and her future purposes, she intends to remain in Manchuria.

The immediate cause of the present difficulty between Russia and Japan is the failure of Russia to evacuate Manchuria, and Japan is determined to know, if possible, what Russia's future purposes are with reference to Manchuria and to Korea; for while Russia has been busy strength-

ening herself in Manchuria, she has been equally busy in endeavoring to strengthen herself in Korea, and in view of the centuries of continuous expansion of Russia, Japan may well be excused for being nervous. Japan has proposed that Russia shall recognize her interests in Korea as paramount, in return for the recognition by Japan of the paramountcy of Russian interests in Manchuria, agreeing that Russian rights in Korea shall be as liberally recognized as Japanese rights in Manchuria. Russia insists that she will not discuss Manchurian questions with Japan, but that she will consider a practical division of Korea. This proposition, naturally, is wholly unacceptable to Japan.

WHY RUSSIA SEEKS KOREA.

The reason for Russia's persistent aggression toward Korea must be sought in her commercial interests. Russia desires Korea in order to open a way by land to seaports which shall be open the year round. Neither Vladivostok nor Dalny nor Port Arthur are such ports. The very improvements at Dalny have made it easier for the sea to freeze up. At enormous expense, Russia has almost completed a railroad across Asia, only to find herself with its termini in winter-locked harbors. To find an open harbor, Russia must either take possession, in China, of some harbor as far south as Chefoo, or she must take possession of Korea as far south as Chemulpo. Russia's only need of Korea is military and commercial. She does not need Korea as an outlet for her surplus population. She does not need the mines of Korea, nor does she need any power which might come from the accession of the Koreans to the Russian throne. She needs an outlet. Russia is, by reason of the very expenditures she has made in Manchuria, more determined than ever to be free to find open access to the waters of the Pacific Ocean.

WHY KOREA IS NECESSARY TO JAPAN.

Japan desires Korea because her population is crowding the home island and must have a place in which to overflow; because the climate, the soil, the products, the environment generally, are little different from those at home, and hence would make an attractive place for this overflow. Also, she wants Korea because she cannot afford to have Korea in the possession of her arch-enemy, Russia. If Russia should take Korea, it would bring the Northern Bear to the very portals of the household of Japan. On the other hand, if Japan should take Korea, it would bring the little yellow man to the borders of Manchuria. Neither one can well afford to go to war over Korea, or for any other cause;

neither can any nation interested in the peace and future commercial possibilities of the Orient willingly consent that war should grow up between Japan and Russia over Korea, or from any other cause. In addition to her fine, ice-free harbors, which Russia wants, and access to which she is determined to have, Korea commands the Yellow Sea and the Japan Sea, and Russia wants no aggressive power like Japan occupying the position Korea commands. Korea has fertile fields, genial climate, unsurpassed fisheries, rich mines, and room for growth. Japan wants these, as well as a place to stand to meet the aggressions of the Slav. Besides, Korea in Russian hands means a dagger pointed at the heart of Japan. It is a life-and-death struggle for Japan. She may be only feinting and diplomatizing in demanding guarantees as to trade and privileges in Manchuria and insisting upon her rights in that province, although her commercial transactions with the people of Manchuria outweigh those of all other nations combined; but as to Korea, there is no room for diplomatizing. The vital importance to Japan of this peninsula is realized by the whole people, from the throne to the Japanese fishermen. The Japanese people are a passionate unit upon this point, and whatever else may be said or done, there will be war, and desperate war, before Japan will willingly consent to seeing Korea in the possession and control of Russia.

RUSSIA'S ARMAMENT COMPARED WITH JAPAN'S.

As to the relative strength of Russia and Japan available for the purpose of a land and naval war in the Orient, there is considerable difference of opinion. According to the military budget of Russia, her army would seem to be about 1,400,000. According to the budget of the Japanese Empire, her army would seem to number about 140,000, with a reserve of about 140,000 more. Many military writers, however, estimate Russia's military strength as in the neighborhood of 3,000,000, and even higher, and some estimate the military strength of Japan as at 600,000 and higher. As to the efficiency of the military organization of the two empires, critics differ. The naval strength of Japan is confessedly greater than the strength of Russia in Oriental waters. Russia has on the Asiatic station seven battleships, with one battleship, the *Ossliabia*, at present in the Mediterranean, which belongs to the Asiatic squadron, and another, the *Alexander III.*, which is to be sent out in the spring of 1904. She has four armored cruisers already in Eastern waters, with another on her way out, which was at Bizerta on December 18 last. She has six pro-

tected cruisers of the first class in Oriental waters, with two on their way out, which were at Bizerta on December 18, and one protected cruiser of the second class. She has twelve torpedo-boat destroyers in Oriental waters, and seven on their way out. She has six torpedo boats at Port Arthur, ten torpedo boats at Vladivostok, and four on their way out from the Black Sea.

Japan has six battleships and six armored cruisers, eighteen protected cruisers, nine unprotected cruisers, and a greater number of torpedo boats and torpedo-boat destroyers than Russia, and has two armored cruisers, which she recently purchased, on the way out. France, the possible ally of Russia, has only one battleship in the Orient, four armored cruisers, three protected cruisers, with a number of smaller boats. England, the possible ally of Japan, has five battleships on the Asiatic station, two armored cruisers, eight protected cruisers, and a large number of torpedo boats and torpedo-boat destroyers, and smaller boats, besides having at the East India station five protected cruisers. Neither Russia nor Japan can well afford to have war, for it takes money to conduct, successfully, modern war. Russia's national debt is in excess of \$3,300,000,000, and the most recent fiscal report shows a deficit in revenues. Japan's debt is \$279,000,000, and she has only about \$26,000,000 in cash on hand. But the issues at stake are so important, events grow so rapidly, the concern of Russia and Japan is so intimate, and the actual situation of Japan is so desperate, that ordinary considerations of prudence may be brushed aside and war begin, the outcome of which no man would be rash enough to undertake to prophesy, further than that it is bound to be of most momentous interest and consequence to the world at large.

INTERNATIONAL CONSEQUENCES OF WAR.

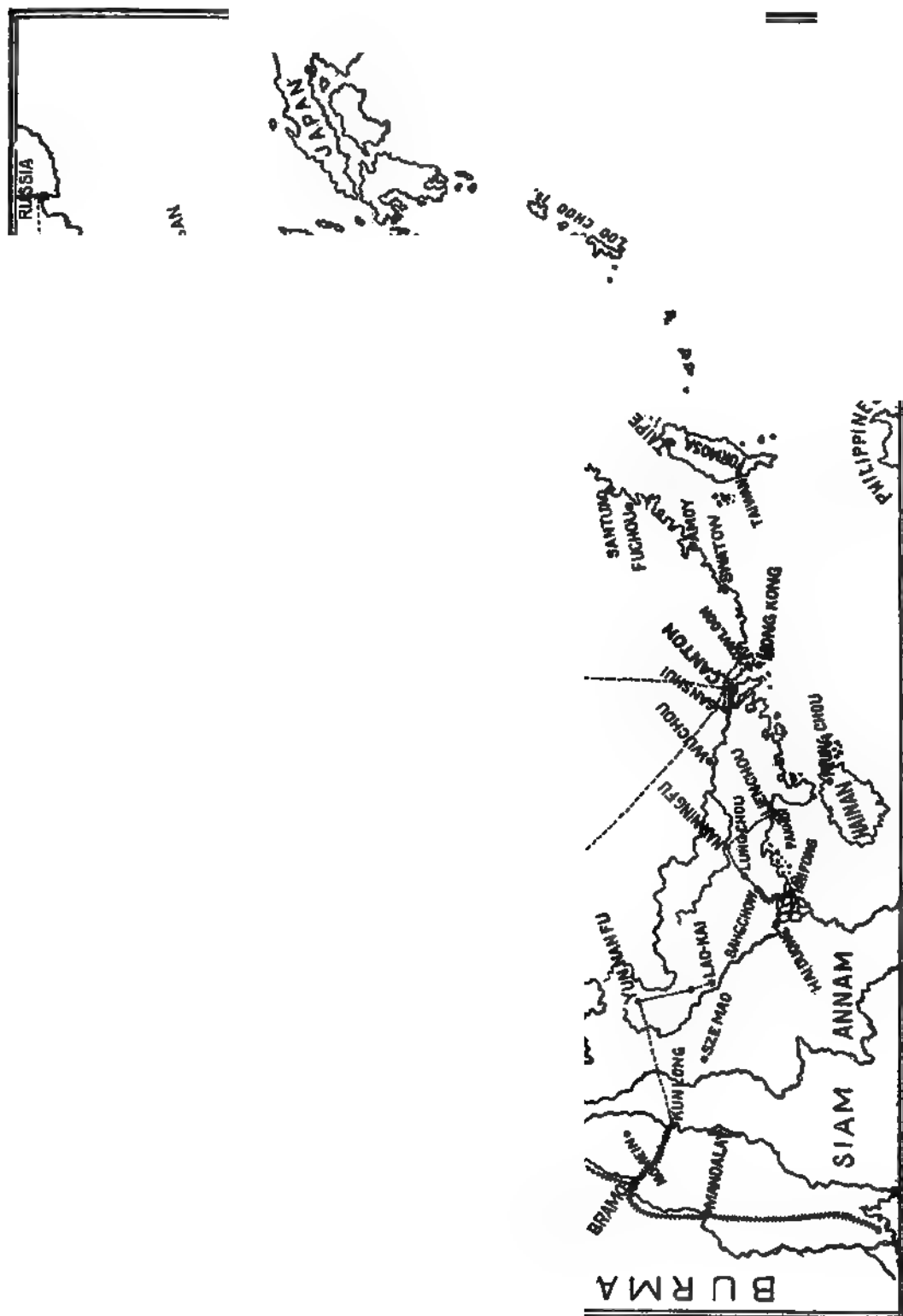
Japan wants the integrity of China maintained, the control of China in Manchuria reestablished, and the commercial door in the entire empire kept open. Japan is willing to respect the paramount interests of Russia in Manchuria, subject to China's administration, in exchange for Russia's recognizing the similar paramountcy of Japanese interests in Korea. Up to this time, Russia refuses to accede to these demands of Japan. Behind all the play and counterplay of diplomatic events, behind all the answers and retorts of strenuous Jap and strenuous Slav, be-

hind all the alleged solicitude for open doors, Korean and Chinese integrity, there pace the fierce figures of national ambitions, national necessities, and national jealousies. Unless the world forbid it, Russia and Japan will, sooner or later, by these belligerent forces be pushed into armed combat, because their interests as nations are irreconcilable and opposing. Either there must be arbitration and acquiescence in the inevitable compromises suggested by the tribunal of arbitration or there must be war. If war could be confined in its operations to Japan and Russia, the world would doubtless be less concerned; but involved in any war in the Orient to-day is the possibility of a world-wide conflagration, in which would be involved the destinies of the twentieth century.

"If Russia should win,"—that is the question that touches profoundly the English statesmen. The supremacy of England in Asiatic affairs has been seriously impaired, if not destroyed, during the last fifteen years. A Russian triumph at this time, under existing circumstances, would so exalt the already dominating influence of Russia in Asia as to be a staggering blow to English supremacy, from which it may well be questioned if England could soon recover. A Japanese victory would result in complications sufficiently serious to give rise to problems sufficiently intricate, but by no means so threatening as the other alternative. Hence, there is no question but that at present the influence of England and France is being thrown to maintain peace, if possible.

One word, in closing, as to the relations of the United States to this particular contest. Under and by virtue of the provisions of a treaty negotiated by Admiral Schufeldt on May 22, 1882, the United States and Korea agreed with each other that if, at any time, either of them were put upon by a foreign nation, and her integrity and her soil threatened, the other would come to her assistance and use her best endeavors to ward off injury from her ally. Under this treaty, we have had intercourse with Korea all these years. The treaty still stands. Korea has not as yet, in view of either Russian aggression or Japanese aggression, or in view of Chinese aggression previous to 1894, seen fit to appeal to this government to carry out this agreement contained in that treaty. If she should do so now, it would raise a serious question as to just what the duty of the United States would be in the premises.





MAP SHOWING CHINESE RAILROADS, COMPLETED AND PROJECTED.

THE RAILWAYS OF CHINA.

BY ARTHUR JUDSON BROWN.

(Author of "The New Era in the Philippines.")

THE pressure of foreign commerce upon China has naturally resulted in demands for concessions to build railways, in order that the country might be opened up for traffic and the products of the interior be more easily and quickly brought to the coast. The first railroad in China was built by British promoters in 1876. It ran from Shanghai to Wu Sung, only 14 miles. Great was the excitement of the populace, and no sooner was it completed than the government bought it, tore up the roadbed, and dumped the engines into the river. That ended railway-building till 1881, when, largely through the influence of Wu Ting Fang, late Chinese minister to the United States, the Chinese themselves, under the guidance of an English engineer, built a little line from the Kaiping coal mines to Taku, at the mouth of the Pei-Ho River, the ocean gateway to the capital. Seeing the benefit of this road, the Chinese raised further funds, borrowed more from the English, and gradually extended it 144 miles to Shan-hai-Kwan on the north, while they ran another line to Tientsin, 27 miles from Tongku, and thence onward 79 miles direct to Peking. This system forms the Imperial Railway and belongs to the Chinese Government, though bonds are held by the English, who loaned money for construction, and though English and American engineers built and superintend the system. The local staff, however, is Chinese.

No more concessions were granted to foreigners till 1895, but then they were given so rapidly that, in 1899, when the Boxer Society first began to attract attention, there were, including the Imperial Railway, not only 366 miles in operation, but 6,000 miles were projected, and engineers were surveying rights of way through whole provinces. Much of the completed work was undone during the destructive madness of the

Boxer uprising, but reconstruction began as soon as the tumult was quelled. According to the *Archiv für Eisenbahnwesen* of Germany, the total length of the railways in use in 1903 in China was 1,236 kilometers, or about 742 miles.

THE RUSSIAN-BUILT LINES.

Several foreign nations have taken an aggressive part in this movement. In the north, Russia, not satisfied with a terminus at cold Vladivostok, where ice closes the harbor nearly half the year, steadily demanded concessions which would enable her Trans-Siberian Railway to reach an ice-free winter port, and thus give her a commanding position in the Pacific and a channel through which the trade of northern Asia might reach and enrich Russia's vast possessions in Siberia and Europe. So Russian diplomacy rested not till it had secured the right to extend the Trans-Siberian Railway southward from Sungari through Manchuria to Tachichao, near Mukden. From there one branch runs southward to Port Arthur and Dalny and another southwestward to Shan-hai-Kwan, where the Great Wall of China touches the sea. As connection is made at that point with the Im-

AT THE PAO TING FU RAILWAY STATION.

(French soldiers in helmets. Note the sign in English and Chinese.)

promise to reach the capital, Chinanfu, within a year, while their ulterior plans include a line from Tsingtau *via* Ichowfu to Chinanfu, so that German lines will ere long completely encircle this mighty province. At Chinanfu, this road will meet another great trunk line, partly German and partly English, which is being pushed southward from Tientsin to Chin-Kiang. An English syndicate, known as the British-Chinese Corporation, is to control a route from Shanghai *via* Soochow and Chin-Kiang to Nanking and Soochow *via* Hangchow to Ningpo, while the Anglo-Chinese Railway Syndicate of London is said to be planning a railway from Canton to Chengtufu, the provincial capital of Szechuan. Meanwhile, the original line from Shanghai to Wu-Sung has been reconstructed by the English.

One of the most valuable concessions in China has been obtained by the Anglo-Italian syndicate in the provinces of Shansi and Shensi, for it gives the right to construct railways and to operate coal mines in a region where some of the most extensive anthracite deposits in the world are located. A beginning has already been made, and when the lines are completed the industrial revolution in China will be mightily advanced.

GERMANS BUILDING A RAILWAY BRIDGE AT SHANTUNG.

perial Railway to Taku, Tientsin, and Peking, Moscow, 5,746 miles away, is brought within seventeen days of Peking. Thus, Russian influence has an almost unrestricted entrance to China on the north, while a third branch from Mukden to Wiju, on the Korean frontier, will connect with a projected line running from that point southward to Seoul, the capital of Korea. A St. Petersburg dispatch, dated November 26, 1903, states that a survey has just been completed from Kiakhta, Siberia, to Peking by way of Gugon, a distance of about 1,000 miles. This road, if built, will give the Russians a short-cut direct to the capital.

GERMAN, ENGLISH, AND ITALIAN ROADS.

In the populous province of Shantung, a German railroad already runs from Tsingtau, on Kiao-chau Bay, into the heart of the populous Shantung province *via* Wei Hsien. The contractors

THE PEKING-HANKOW LINE.

An alleged Belgian syndicate, which was formed with the not wholly disinterested assistance of the French and Russian legations, ob-

tained in 1896 a concession to construct the Lu Han Railway from Peking 750 miles southward to Hankow, the commercial metropolis on the middle Yangtse River. It is significant, however, that while the Belgian syndicate was temporarily embarrassed, the Russo-Chinese Bank of Peking aided the Chinese director-general of

luxurious. Our train was a mixed one,—the first-class compartments containing a few French officers, the second-class filled with Chinese coolies and French soldiers, while a half-dozen flat cars were loaded with horses and mules. A large Rogers locomotive from Paterson, N. J., drew our long train smoothly and easily, though the schedule was so slow and the stops so long that we were seven hours and a half in making a run of a hundred miles.

AN AMERICAN PROJECT.

Railway-building in South China, outside of French territory, began with a line from Canton to Hankow which was projected in 1895 by Senator Calvin S. Brice, William Barclay Parsons being the engineer. The usual governmental difficulties were encountered, but in 1902 an imperial decree gave the concession to the American-China Development Company. American

TRAVELING IN CHINA BEFORE THE CONSTRUCTION OF RAILWAYS.

railways to begin the section running from Peking to Paoting-fu. The road is already in operation as far as Shuntetu, 300 miles from Peking, and the Russo-Chinese Bank has secured the right to build a branch line from Ching-ting via Tai-Yuen-fu to Si-ngan-fu in Shensi, where it will be well started on the beaten caravan route between north China and Russian central Asia. On November 13, 1903, the Belgian International Eastern Company signed a contract to construct a railway from Kai-Fong-fu, the capital of the province of Honan, 110 miles west to Honan-fu.

I found the line running south from Peking well built, with solid roadbed, massive stone culverts, iron bridges, and heavy steel rails. The first and second class coaches are not attractive in appearance, and though the fare for the former is double that of the latter, the chief discernible difference is that in the first-class compartment, which is usually in one end of a second-class car, the seats are curved and the passengers fewer in number, while in the second-class the seats are straight boards, and are likely to be crowded with Chinese coolies. Neither class is upholstered, and neither would be considered comfortable in America; but after the weeks I had spent in a mule-litter, anything on rails seemed

THE WEI HSIEN STATION ON THE SHANTUNG RAILWAY.

capital will finance the road, though with some European aid. The company has the power, under its concession, to issue fifty-year 5 per cent. gold bonds to the amount of \$42,500,000, the interest being guaranteed by the Chinese Government. The main line will be 700 miles long, and branches will increase the total mileage to 900. On November 15, 1903, a section 10 miles long, from Canton to Fatshan, was formally opened for traffic in the presence of the Hon. Francis May, colonial secretary and registrar-general of the Hongkong government, a large number of Europeans and Americans, and immense crowds of Chinese, who manifested their excitement by an almost incessant rattle of fire-crackers. The company expected to have the line completed to Sam-Shui, 20 miles beyond Fatshan, by January 15 of this year. This is a branch line. The main line will run on the other side of the West River, and Mr. Willis E. Gray,

the general manager and chief engineer, states that he will build from both ends, at the rate of about 125 miles a year.

It will thus be seen that if these vast schemes can be realized there will not only be numerous lines running from the coast into the interior, but a great trunk line from Canton through the very heart of the empire to Peking, where other roads can be taken, not only to Manchuria and Korea, but to any part of Europe.

FRENCH OPERATIONS IN SOUTHERN CHINA.

In the farther south, the French are equally busy.

By the Franco-Chinese convention of June 20, 1895, a French company secured the right to construct a railroad from Lao-Kai to Yunnanfu. The French had a road from Haifong, in Tongking, to Sangchow, at the Chinese frontier, and in 1896 they obtained from China a concession to extend it to Nanningfu, on the West River. This privilege has since been enlarged so that the line will be continued to the treaty port of Pakhoi, on the Gulf of Tongking. The French fondly dream of the time when

A CONSTRUCTION TRAIN ON THE NEW GERMAN RAILWAY AT KRAECHOW.

they can extend their Yunnan Railway northward till it taps and makes tributary to French Indo-China the vast and fertile valley of the upper Yangtse River. Meanwhile, the English talk of a line from Kowloon, opposite Hongkong, to Canton, and of connecting their Burma Railroad, which already runs from Rangoon to Kunlong Ferry, with the Yangtse Valley, so that the enormous trade of southern interior China may not flow into a French port, as the French so ardently desire, but into an English city.

THE RESULTANT TRANSFORMATION.

It would be impossible to describe within the limits of an article the far-reaching effect upon China and the Chinese of this extension of modern railways. China is not only the most populous country in the world, but it occupies an enormous territory, rich in natural resources. As I traveled through the land, it seemed to me that almost the whole northern part of the empire was composed of illimitable fields of wheat and millet, and that in the south the millions of paddy plots formed a rice field of continental proportions. Hidden away in China's mountains, and underlying her bound-

less plateaus, are immense deposits of coal and iron; while above any other country on the globe, China has the labor for the development of agriculture and manufacture. To make these resources available to the rest of the world, and in turn to introduce among the 426,000,000 of the Chinese the products and inventions of Europe and America, is to bring about an economic transformation of stupendous proportions.

Imagine, too, what changes are involved in the substitution of the locomotive for the coolie as a motive power, the freight car for the wheelbarrow in the shipment of produce, and the passenger coach for the cart and the mule-litter in the transportation of people. Railways will inevitably inaugurate in China a new era; and when a new era is inaugurated for one-third of the human race the other two-thirds are certain to be affected in many ways.

OPPOSITION TO RAILROAD-BUILDING.

That the transformation is attended by outbreaks of violence is natural enough. Even such a people as the English and the Scotch were at first inimical to railroads, and it is notorious that the great Stephenson had to meet not only ridicule, but strenuous opposition. Everybody knows, too, that in the United States stage companies and stage drivers did all they could to prevent the building of railroads, and that learned gentlemen made eloquent speeches which proved to the entire satisfaction of their authors that railways would disarrange all the conditions of society and business and bring untold evils in their train. If the alert and progressive Anglo-Saxon took this initial position, is it surprising that it should be taken with far greater intensity by Orientals who for uncounted centuries have plodded along in perfect contentment, and who now find that the whole order of

CHINESE VENDERS SELLING SWEETMEATS TO RAILWAY PASSENGERS.

living to which they and their fathers have become adapted is being shaken to its foundation by the iron horse of the foreigner?

Nor are racial prejudices and vested interests the only foes which the railway has to encounter in China. It is the custom of the Chinese to bury their dead wherever a geomancer indicates a "lucky" place, and that place immediately becomes sacred. In a land which has been so densely populated for thousands of years, graves are therefore not only innumerable but omnipresent. In my travels in China, I was hardly ever out of sight of these conical mounds of the dead, and as a rule I could count hundreds of them from my *shendzu* (litter). In such circumstances, no degree of care can avoid the irritation caused by railway-construction. The following illustration, of which I wrote at the time, is worth repeating as a characteristic instance of this:

In building the line from Tsingtau to Kiaochau, a distance of 46 miles, the Germans, as far as practicable, ran around the places most thickly covered with graves. But in spite of this, no less than 3,000 graves had to be removed. It was impossible to settle with the individual owners, as it was difficult in many cases to ascertain who they were, most of the graves being unmarked, and some of the families concerned having died out or moved away. Moreover, the Oriental has no idea of time, and dearly loves to haggle, especially with a foreigner, whom he feels no compunction in swindling. So the railway company made its negotiations with the local magistrates, showing them the routes, indicating the graves that were in the way, and paying them an average of \$3 (Mexican) for removing each grave, they to find and settle with the owners. This was believed to be fair, for

\$3 is a large sum where the coin in common circulation is the copper "cash," so small in value that 1,600 of them equal a gold dollar, and where a few dozen cash will buy a day's food for an adult. But while some of the Chinese were glad to accept this arrangement, others were not. They wanted more, or they had special affection for the dead, or that particular spot had been carefully selected because it was favored by the spirits. Besides, the magistrates doubtless kept a part of the price as their share.

In these circumstances, we should not be surprised that some of the most furiously anti-foreign feeling in China was in the villages along the line of that railroad. Why should the hated foreigner force his line through their country when the people did not want it? Of course, it would save time, but, as an official naively said, "We are not in a hurry." So the villagers watched the construction with ill-concealed anger, and to-day that railroad, as well as most other railroads in North China, can only be kept open by detachments of foreign soldiers at all the important stations. I saw them at almost every stop,—German soldiers from Tsingtau to Kiao-chau, British from Tongku to Peking, French from Peking to Paoting-fu, etc.

NATURE OF THE TRAFFIC.

Nevertheless, railways in China are usually profitable. It is true that the opposition to the building of a railroad is apt to be bitter, that mobs are occasionally destructive, and that locomotives and other rolling stock rapidly deteriorate under native handling unless closely watched by foreign superintendents. But, on the other hand, the government is usually forced to pay indemnities for losses resulting from violence. The road, too, once built, is in time appreciated by the thrifty Chinese, who swallow their prejudices and patronize it in such enormous numbers, and ship by it such quantities of their produce, that the business speedily becomes remunerative, while the population and the resources of the country are so vast as to afford almost unlimited opportunity for the development of traffic.

As a rule, on all the roads, the first-class compartments, when there are any, have comparatively few passengers, chiefly officials and foreigners. The second-class cars are well filled with respectable-looking people, who are apparently small merchants, students, minor officials, etc. The third-class cars, which are usually more numerous, are packed with chattering peasants. The first-class fares are about the same as ordinary rates in the United States. The second-class are about half the first-class rates, and the third-

class are often less than the equivalent of a cent a mile. This is a wise adjustment in a land where the average man is so thrifty and so poor that he would not and could not pay a price which would be deemed moderate in America, and where his scale of living makes him content with the rudest accommodations.

The freight cars, during my visit, were, for the most part, loaded with the materials and supplies necessitated by the work of railway-construction and by the extensive rebuilding of the native and foreign property which had been destroyed by the Boxers. But in normal conditions the railways carry inland a large number of foreign manufactured articles, and in turn bring to the ports the wheat, rice, peanuts, ore, coal, pelts, silk, wool, cotton, matting, paper, straw braid, earthenware, sugar, tea, tobacco, fireworks, fruit, vegetables, and other products of the interior. Short hauls are the rule, thus far, both for passengers and freight. This is partly because the long-distance lines within the empire are not yet completed, and partly because the typical Chinese of the lower classes in the interior provinces has never been a score of miles away from his native village in his life, and has been so accustomed to regard a wheelbarrow trip of a dozen miles as a long journey that he is a little cautious, at first, in lengthening his radius of movement. But he soon learns, especially as the struggle for existence in an overcrowded country begets a desire to take advantage of an opportunity to better his condition elsewhere. Once fairly started, he is apt to go far, as the numbers of Chinese in Siam, the Philippines, and America clearly show. The literary and official classes are less apt to go abroad, but they are more accustomed to moving about within the limits of the empire, as they must go to the central cities for their examinations, and as offices are held for such short terms that magistrates are frequently shifted from province to province. When this vast population of naturally industrious and commercial people becomes accustomed to railways and gets to moving freely upon them, stupendous things are likely to happen, both for China and for the world.

And so the foreign syndicates relentlessly continue the work of railway-construction. And the result will inevitably be to the advantage of China. A locomotive brings intellectual and physical benefits, the appliances which mitigate the poverty and barrenness of existence and increase the ability to provide for the necessities and the comforts of life. We need regret only that these benefits are so often accompanied by the evils which disgrace our civilization.

AN IRRIGATION WINDMILL AND RESERVOIR, GARDEN CITY, KANSAS.

WINDMILL IRRIGATION IN KANSAS.

BY PHILIP EASTMAN.

BEFORE a railroad had spanned the continent and connected the eastern part of the United States with the Pacific Ocean, all travel between civilization on the east and California on the west was by way of the old Santa Fé wagon trail, which wound its tortuous way across the wind-swept plains of the "Great American Desert."

The desert was as uninviting as the Sahara. In 1871, when the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé Railroad was being built from about the center of the country toward the Pacific, the builders stopped the western advance when the eastern edge of the desert was reached and turned southward at Newton, Kan. The country from there to Pueblo, Colo., was without habitation, except the garrison at Fort Dodge. The plains were given over to bands of roving Indians and mammoth herds of buffalo.

The march of civilization was unchecked, however, by the terrors of the barren country, and to keep pace with the ever advancing frontier line the railroad was, in a few years, built parallel with the wagon trail, and the desert was bisected by its tracks. At first it was thought that the country was suited only for cattle-raising, and large herds of cattle foraged on the scant buffalo grass. Gradually the idea that the land

might have an agricultural value took root. It was a comparatively short time until it was found that bountiful crops could be grown provided sufficient moisture were furnished them. Rain was not plentiful, and the hot winds swept the country and scorched vegetation. Taking water from the Arkansas River, which has its source in the Rocky Mountains, was tried. Hundreds of thousands of dollars were spent in building irrigation ditches, but it was found that the river was generally dry when water was needed.

Then it was, in 1889, that windmill irrigation was proposed at Garden City, Kan. Wells were sunk and windmills were set to work pumping water into reservoirs. The underground water-supply was found to be inexhaustible. The wind, which before had burned and shriveled, was the salvation of the farms, and Garden City found itself in the center of an oasis. When the first experimental windmill irrigation plant had been proved a success, others were built, and in a short time the country for miles around was dotted with windmills and reservoirs.

As far as the eye could reach there had been nothing but a limitless expanse of flat, treeless prairie. Under irrigation, shade trees were started, and in a few years their roots reached

A SCENE IN FINNEY COUNTY, KANSAS, WHERE IRRIGATION HAS NOT BEEN TRIED.

the underflow of water, and for them irrigation was no longer necessary. It was but a few years until the transformation had taken place. The town was hidden by a luxuriant growth of foliage; the farms were green from early in the spring until fall; orchards and vineyards were planted, and to-day Garden City and the adjacent country present a sylvan scene.

The farmers abandoned the Western idea of mammoth farms of hundreds of acres planted to but one immense crop, and turned to the older plan of small, well-kept farms with varied crops, where a failure in one of the plantings does not mean an entire loss. As a result, farms of twenty-five acres, under good management, net their owners close to two thousand dollars during a

good average year. A late frost in the spring, or unfavorable climatic conditions, may lessen the yields, but there is never a complete failure, for the weather that is injurious to one crop may be excellent for another.

The pioneer irrigators had no one to turn to for advice, for no one had sunk wells, erected windmills, built reservoirs, and irrigated under just the same conditions as presented themselves at Garden City. The experimental stage was costly. Much money was spent for lumber to be used in building reservoirs, until it was found that the best and cheapest could be built with earth. One system now employed is to cover the bottoms and sides with sod, while another plan followed with success is to drive cattle or

WILD HAY UNDER IRRIGATION.

horses over the bottom until the earth is thoroughly packed. In these two ways, farmers build their reservoirs without cost for material.

That a good supply of water could be found from sixteen to twenty feet from the surface had been known to the stockmen of the country, but not until the wells were sunk and the windmills were set to work was it found that the supply was inexhaustible. The entire country along the Arkansas River for miles on either side was found to have an underflow of excellent water which amounted to almost a subterranean river. Wells

are usually sunk to a depth of forty feet, the last twenty-four feet being through a sandy formation saturated with water. Although the river, depending for water on the snows and rains of the Rocky Mountains and the rains in the country it traverses, is totally dry many months in the year, partly from the fact that much of the water is used nearer its source for irrigating in Colorado by ditches, still the underflow in the Garden City district has never diminished.

The wells for irrigating are built in a peculiar

manner. For the first sixteen feet they are dug like ordinary wells. Then the subsoil, of a quick sand nature, is reached. From that depth a cylinder sixteen inches, or larger, in diameter and thickly perforated is driven downward, and the sand and water that enter the cylinder through the perforations are pumped out and the cylinder is forced still further downward. As the country is practically flat, the reservoirs have to be built with embankments, to bring them above the natural level, in order that a fall for the water may be secured.

The windmills cost from \$150 to \$200. There is no expense for power to operate them. By keeping them at work pumping into the reservoirs when the wind is of sufficient velocity to furnish the necessary power, water can be stored for use when the wind happens to fail. The size of the area to be irrigated and the crops to be grown determines the number of windmills and reservoirs necessary. A windmill in an ordinary wind will fill a reservoir 75 by 150 feet and 8 feet deep in two days and nights. One windmill and one reservoir will supply sufficient water to irrigate from ten to twenty acres.

The farmer who adopts irrigation is forced to learn some of the rudimentary principles of surveying, in order to build his reservoir and run his ditches so that water can be carried to all parts of the farm. The water is carried from the reservoir in main ditches leading to the different fields. From the main ditch, smaller ones carry the water between the rows of trees or vegetables, except when fields, such as alfalfa hay fields, are to be watered by the flooding system.

Different crops were tried until those best

A WAGON-LOAD OF MELONS, TOMATOES, AND CUCUMBERS,
GROWN UNDER IRRIGATION AND PICKED IN DECEMBER.

adapted to the soil and climate were found. One of the most successful is sweet potatoes. An acre well watered and tended will bring large profits. In a short time after planting, the vines form a mass that completely covers the ground. The yield for a good average year is 200 bushels an acre. Under irrigation, the sandy loam yields mammoth crops of onions, an acre producing 150 bushels. Cabbages are raised by the thousands, an acre producing 6,000 heads and upward, weighing from five to six pounds each. Some of the largest cabbage crops have been sold for from \$600 to \$700 an acre.

Sugar beets will not do well in the Garden City district unless irrigated, but with water they produce thirty tons to the acre. An acre of melons has, in one season, produced a crop that sold for \$140. An eighth of an acre of strawberry plants has a credit of \$92. Alfalfa hay, under windmill irrigation, is mown four times a year, and yields a total of from six to eight tons per acre. Celery was found to be well adapted to the soil. A crop raised on a tract of ground 7 x 170 feet, containing 3,500 plants, netted a profit to the grower of \$75.

Windmill irrigation was responsible for orchards springing up in the country where no trees grew naturally. Cherry trees, 70 to the acre, yield annually from a bushel to a bushel and a half per tree. Plums yield as high as 600 bushels from an acre of 60 trees. An apple

SEEDLING PEACHES.

(The peaches are twice as large as the silver dollar shown on the left of the picture.)

orchard of seven acres, containing 350 trees, has yielded over 1,700 bushels at a picking. Orchards have been injured by the weight of the apples breaking the branches of the trees. The vineyards, with their luxuriant growth, also bespeak the wonders of windmill irrigation.

At the county fairs, the results of windmill irrigation are shown by the individual exhibits of grains, vegetables, and small fruits grown by the irrigators. These displays show the varied crops grown on the small farms.

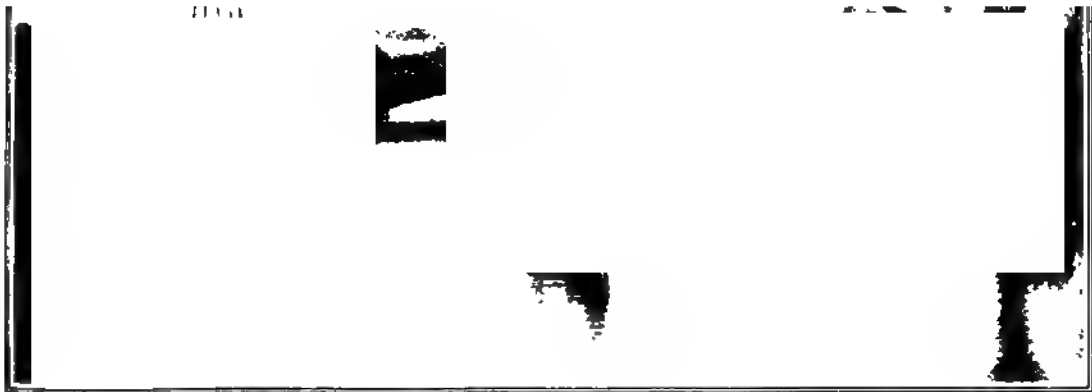
The irrigation reservoirs brought luxuries to the prairie farmers that were unthought of when the settlers located. The reservoirs are stocked with German carp and other varieties, and the farmer living hundreds of miles from the habitat of fish can supply his family table from his private fishing preserves. These reservoirs afford a crop of ice in the winter that can be stored away for summer use. The reservoirs furnish skating in the winter and swimming and boating in the summer for boys who otherwise would be deprived of these sports of youth.

When the Garden City district had been made to yield large crops of fruit and vegetables, the farmers began looking for the highest prices for the products. There is always a wholesale market at Denver and Kansas City, but in either case there is a long distance to ship. The farm-

ers sought the highest retail prices, and many of them adopted the plan of peddling. After the crops are gathered, the farmers load their wagons with vegetables and fruits and travel across the country, selling from the wagon. Trips are made a distance of seventy-five miles, and at the large cattle ranches the products of the irrigated gardens are always in demand.

After it had been proved at Garden City that windmill irrigation was a success, it spread to other localities in western Kansas. Water could not be found everywhere at so shallow a depth as 16 feet, and in many places wells were bored from 150 to 200 feet before water was reached, but with large windmills the water can be raised in sufficient quantity for irrigating. However, Garden City still remains the center of the district in which the most extensive and successful windmill irrigation is carried on.

There are many people now living in the Garden City district who went there as pioneers a quarter of a century ago, when the country was unfenced and the view was limited only by the horizon, who have witnessed the transformation wrought by windmill irrigation. An unknown wanderer is credited with having named the settlement. The name might have once sounded derisive, but now it seems that the wanderer chose a prophetic title when he christened Garden City.



A VIEW OF RESERVOIRS AND WINDMILLS.

THE MEXICAN COTTON-BOLL WEEVIL.

BY L. O. HOWARD.

(Entomologist of the United States Department of Agriculture.)

THE approximate value of the cotton crop of the world is between seven hundred and fifty and eight hundred millions of dollars. Of the world's cotton, the United States produces about 80 per cent., and this enormous proportion in the production of one of the great raw products of the world's consumption is a prominent factor in placing the United States in her present position in relation to the trade balance of the world. Of the enormous amount of cotton grown in the United States, the State of Texas has for years produced, approximately, one-third. Cotton alone brings to the State of Texas over one hundred millions of dollars annually, and when the price of the staple reaches the high figure of fourteen cents per pound, which it has reached within the past few weeks, the value of a good cotton crop to the State would surpass two hundred millions. With a good crop, however, the price is naturally much lower; but even in the depressed times of a few years back, when five cents per pound was all that the grower could get, cotton still remained the great crop of the State, and the great crop of many of the other Southern States.

ECONOMIC IMPORTANCE OF THE PEST.

One of the prime reasons for the present high price of cotton, aside from the clever manipulations of the market, has been not an unprecedentedly small crop so much as a rather well-founded fear of enormous damage by an insect which for the past few years has caused an annual loss to the State of Texas exceeding ten millions of dollars in actual cotton destroyed, and an annual loss of possibly one hundred millions in the effect of this destruction upon industries depending upon or connected with the cotton crop.

The insect in question has spread over practically the whole cotton-growing section of Texas, and is just about to enter Louisiana on the east and the Indian Territory on the north. Indirectly, the loss has not fallen upon the State of Texas alone, even at this early date. The high price of cotton has affected the rest of the country, and, in fact, the rest of the world; cotton mills have shut down, employees by the thousands have been thrown out of work, cotton manufactories of other countries have become

involved, and the far-seeing statesmen of other countries have for some time been using every endeavor to further the production of cotton in their own territories. England has been making an effort to grow cotton on a constantly increasing scale in several of her colonies. She is, by means of her great irrigation plans, vastly increasing the possibilities of cotton-production in Egypt, over which she exercises a virtual protectorate. Germany in East Africa and Russia in Transcaspia are also working in this same direction. Expert representatives of these nations have visited the United States and have made close studies of our methods, and American experts have been offered large salaries to go abroad.

The present situation, therefore, is not an encouraging one. The United States, however, will not lose her supremacy in this direction without her customary strong fight, and Congress, at its present session, has already appropriated some hundreds of thousands of dollars to enable the Department of Agriculture to carry on work which shall not only look toward methods for controlling the multiplication and spread of the cotton-boll weevil, but also the damage done by other cotton insects and the diseases of the plant, and also scientific work in plant-breeding, in the hope of producing new rapidly maturing varieties of cotton which from the fact of quick growth and early fruiting will enable planters to secure the crop, each year, in advance of the time of greatest abundance of the weevils. Under this appropriation, the whole cotton situation will be handled, and not only the cotton situation, but the agricultural conditions prevailing in cotton-growing regions.

WHAT THE INSECT REALLY IS.

The insect which has brought about this almost world-wide condition of alarm and uncertainty is an insignificant creature in itself. It is a small beetle, little over a quarter of an inch in length, gray in color, and with a long beak. It belongs to a group of weevils which breed in pods and seeds and stalks of plants, and is known scientifically as *Anthonomus grandis*. Its natural home is in tropical America, and it is found through Mexico and Central America, and in Cuba, and probably also in northern South America. It is one of two or three trop-

THE COTTON-BOLL WEEVIL.

(Greatly enlarged.)

ical insects which have shown themselves able to multiply and spread within the limits of the United States. This in itself is an unusual fact, since most of our important insect pests of first-class importance have come to us from Europe.

ITS RAVAGES IN TEXAS.

The cotton-boll weevil feeds only upon the cotton plant. In portions of Mexico, it had caused the abandonment of cotton-culture prior to 1890. About 1891 or 1892, it crossed the Rio Grande from the vicinity of Matamoras and settled in the cotton fields about Brownsville, Texas. Cotton was not an important crop at this place, and the ravages of the weevil were not soon reported. The little town is well isolated from the main cotton-producing portion of the State by a very large area of grazing land; but soon cotton was carried, to be ginned, overland to Alice, in Nueces County, and from Alice north there spreads a practically continuous region of cotton-cultivation, so that the insect spread year by year, carried in the cotton to the gins, and flying in the autumn, aided by the prevalent south winds. Its rate of spread toward the north and the east was from fifty to seventy-five miles each year, and at the close of the season of 1903 it had practically reached the northern border of the State, and had in two instances, at least, crossed the Louisiana border on the northeast.

The attention of the Department of Agriculture was first called to this insect early in 1894, and an expert was sent to Brownsville to conduct an investigation. It had previously been

known to the department as a Mexican cotton insect, through the receipt of specimens from one of its botanical explorers, Dr. Edward Palmer. By 1896, when the insect was still confined to the southern portion of the cotton belt in Texas, the Division of Entomology of the department had already fully studied the life-history of the insect and was familiar with its habits. It had also pointed out certain measures for relief which form the basis of the most advanced treatment of to-day. The division urged upon the State of Texas the passage of a State law which should compel planters in the infested district to cut down the crop in October or early November, after the bulk of the staple had been gathered, and to destroy the stalks. Had such a law been enforced at that time, it is safe to say that the loss would have been so insignificant that the State could easily have afforded to pay individual planters the small sum that would have been needed to compensate them for the loss of the late autumn and early winter pickings, and the spread of the weevil would have been stopped. The then governor of the State, Mr. Culberson, was advised of this fact, and favored the passage of such a bill, but the prospective danger was not realized by the Legislature, and no such law was enacted. The Division of Entomology continued its investigations year by year, followed the spread of the insect with anxiety, and published circulars and maps for the information of planters.

WORK OF THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

In 1898, the Texas Legislature, at last realizing the danger that threatened the most important agricultural industry of the State, made provision for the appointment of a State entomologist and for a thorough investigation. The appointee, Prof. F. W. Mally, was a skilled entomologist, and one in whom the United States Department of Agriculture had confidence. So the department withdrew temporarily from the field, while offering Professor Mally any assistance in its power. Professor Mally conducted careful investigations, made some new recommendations, published a bulletin which was widely circulated throughout the State, and which no doubt did great good in posting planters as to the history of the insect and the best remedies, but the weevil still spread. In 1901, the United States Department of Agriculture again began work at the direction of Congress, and during the past three years, with constantly increasing appropriations, has been able to do a great deal of effective work. Every possible remedial suggestion has been tested, experts

THE LARVA OF COTTON-BOLL WEEVIL INJURING
A "SQUARE."

have been kept in the field in different portions of the State from March until December, an experimental laboratory has been established at Victoria, and large demonstration plots, during the past year, have been conducted at seven points within the State. Search for efficient natural enemies of the boll weevil has been conducted all through Mexico and in Central America, as well as in Cuba. No effective parasite or other natural enemy has been discovered.

It has been found to be impossible to poison the weevil in the field. It is a hard-shelled, tough little creature, very resistant to the action of contact poisons, and in an extraordinary degree resistant to internal poisons such as arsenic in its different forms. Its larva lives hidden within the "square," or boll, where poisons cannot reach it. It seems, therefore, that hope in poisons must practically be abandoned, although experimentation still continues. Mechanical means of fighting the weevils, such as machines for knocking them from the plants and collecting them from the ground, or collecting fallen squares containing the larvae from the ground, have been tried in considerable variety, and, so far, have failed, from the most practical and economic standpoint.

THE WEEVIL'S LIFE-HISTORY AND HABITS.

The investigators have come, however, to rely upon certain variations in cultural methods which have given fairly good success. These methods are dependent upon an intimate knowledge of the life history and habits of the insect. The adult weevil hibernates. It hides itself in old cornstalks left standing in the fields, as is

the universal custom throughout the South; in old cotton stalks, in clumps of grasses, under the bark of trees and old logs, and abundantly along the margins of woods adjoining cotton fields; and, in fact, in all sheltered locations near the fields. Although a tropical insect, it is resistant to cold in a marvelous degree; but a very large proportion of the weevils which seek hibernating quarters perish before spring, either by the action of the cold or through destruction by birds, or in other ways. Therefore, when spring comes, the great army of weevils which existed in the autumn has become enormously reduced. When the first "squares" form upon the plant, however, they are in evidence, and immediately begin to lay their eggs. They first attack the square, or flower, and the young grub hatching from the egg destroys the essential parts of the square, which usually falls to the ground.

When the grub, or larva, has reached full size, it transforms to the pupal condition without changing its location, and the adult weevil emerges soon afterward. Later generations of the weevil attack the young bolls, puncturing them with their beaks, laying the eggs in the punctures, and the young grubs, penetrating to the interior, are completely inclosed, and there remain until full-grown, transforming to pupæ, and the adults issue through holes which they make, and which permit moisture to enter and decay to destroy such of the contents of the bolls as have not already been eaten by the grubs. This life-round continues for generation after generation, and even the large, hard bolls are

THE PUPA OF COTTON-BOLL WEEVIL IN A "SQUARE."

up and burned, thus destroying thousands of larvæ and pupæ in the bolls, and reducing the number of possible hibernating weevils to an enormous extent. If the same land is put under cultivation the following year, the crop will stand a much better chance, since the starting group of weevils will be much less numerous.

It has been very difficult to get Texas planters to adopt this method, but gradually one after another of the more progressive men have taken it up, and it has met with considerable success. Under the direction of the Division of Entomology, large demonstration plots of cotton were cultivated by this method during the summer of 1903 in different parts of Texas. The result was that it was conclusively shown that a profitable crop of cotton can be grown in this way in localities where the weevil, under old conditions, destroys nine-tenths of the normal product.

PREVENTIVE MEASURES IN SOUTHERN STATES.

As stated above, the weevil crossed into Louisiana late in the season of 1903. Louisiana, in November, called an emergency session of her Legislature, which passed a bill establishing a commission with power to handle such isolated appearances. Georgia, Alabama, and North Carolina are also protected by similar laws, and have quarantined against Texas cottonseed and other products in which the weevil may accidentally be introduced. An outbreak of the weevil during the summer of 1903 on the grounds of the agricultural experiment station at Audubon Park was promptly checked, and the weevil was exterminated at that point by the station authorities.

From the present outlook, it seems practically certain that the weevil will spread to all portions of the United States where cotton can be grown. Estimating the value of the cotton crop of the United States at five hundred millions of dollars, and the damage done by the weevil, after it has become thoroughly established in any given locality, at one-half the crop, there is a prospective damage of two hundred and fifty millions of dollars annually, provided no remedial work is done. That such a loss, however, will never come about is the strong belief of the writer. The confidence expressed in the Department of Agriculture in the editorial columns of the last number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* is well founded, and it seems certain that although the problem confronting the country is one of the greatest ever known in the field of economic entomology, the outcome will indicate once more the value of the work of the department.

A COTTON-BOLL WITH FEEDING-HOLES OF WEEVIL, AND BEARING THREE SPECIMENS OF THE BUG.

attacked and their contents destroyed. The rapidity of growth is surprising. In midsummer a whole generation may be developed in two weeks. The insect, thus multiplying in geometrical ratio from spring until fall, soon becomes an army increasing with constantly greater rapidity, until by the end of October, in badly infested regions, there are weevils for every boll of cotton in the fields.

ADVANTAGES OF AN EARLY CROP.

It has long been the custom in Texas to plant native seed, to cultivate the crop but slightly, to plant the rows rather close together, and to pick gradually as labor could be secured. Frequently, the entire crop was not harvested until long after Christmas, and in some places the bulk of the picking was carried on after the middle of October. As just shown, by that time the weevils have become so abundant as to offer little chance of a crop. The plan now adopted is to plant northern seed, which, through its habituation to a shorter summer, produces a more rapidly developing plant. This northern seed is planted as early as possible, and in rows considerably wider apart than has been the custom, since the weevil loves shade. The cultivation is increased, if not thought too expensive by the planters, and the result is that the plant matures very rapidly, and a good crop is picked by October, before the increasing army of weevils has reached anything like its maximum. Then, with this crop assured, the cotton is plowed

THREE MEN WHO ARE REMAKING THE BRITISH ARMY.

BY W. T. STEAD.

THE three most notable men in the British Empire at the dawn of the new year are not, as some might imagine, his Majesty the King, Lord Rosebery, and Mr. Chamberlain. Notable they are, each in his own way. The King is at the beginning of his career. Every king is notable, if only because of the throne he sits on. But Edward VII. is becoming notable for something else beyond his exalted station. He is justifying the confidence often expressed by Lord Knollys in the days when our present sovereign was only Prince of Wales, and an overshadowed prince at that. Since his accession, he has steadily progressed, not in mere popularity, for he was always popular, but in the sincere regard which capacity and resolution extort from men of affairs. The King has shown aptitudes which may, if his life is prolonged, make him one of the greatest of English monarchs. He is not a genius. But he has shrewd sense, good judgment, and a deep sense of his royal responsibility. He has done some notable things already. His influence was exerted wisely, and quietly, but persistently, in favor of the termination of the war in South Africa. When it was over, it was employed judiciously and promptly in an endeavor to do what personal kindness and frank, straightforward speech could do to remove from the minds of the Boer generals the bitter memories of the struggle in which they had played the heroic part. In Continental politics, he has played wisely and well the useful rôle of a *commis voyageur* of peace. His tour, last Easter, through Europe did good, and only good, wherever he went. His tact, his *bonhomie*, his kindly bearing, did much to remove the unpleasant impression often left on our Continental neighbors by the ill manners, arrogance, and unsympathetic *morgue* of his subjects. But perhaps the most significant exercise of his authority has been the personal share which he has taken in inducing his ministers to take active and decisive measures to cope with the frightful mess in which the war in South Africa left the British army. But of all this the nation knows little or nothing. The merit of the King is discreetly veiled. What he has done, or is doing, properly goes to the credit of his advisers. This is perhaps less

unfair than it seems at first sight. For monarchs so often are credited with the sagacity of their advisers that it is only just that sometimes their ministers should profit by the wisdom of their sovereign.

Mr. Chamberlain is as notable as a rocket is brilliant when it bursts in coruscating splendor over the heads of a wondering multitude. It is splendid and dazzling, no doubt. But it is the end of the rocket. Lord Rosebery is notable enough in another way. He is the notability of infinite potentialities. He is the *paulo post futurum* of modern statesmen—the great to-be-about-to-be of our time. But the great demagogue who is lighting his way to his own political sepulchre by the lurid displays of protectionist pyrotechnics, and the ex-premier, of whom everything is hoped and to whom everything is forgiven, are of less importance to the empire,—are, in the strict sense of the word, less notable at the present moment,—than the three men whose careers form the subject of this article. For to these three has been deputed the herculean task of cleansing the Augean stable of the war office. It is to them to whom we have to look as our only hope of profiting by the lessons of the late war. It depends upon them, and upon them almost alone, whether the two hundred and thirty million pounds spent in demonstrating the hopeless ineffectiveness of our military system is to be utterly wasted or whether we shall be able to obtain as some slight return for this gigantic outlay an army adequate to the needs of the empire which will not be a ruinous burden to the taxpayer. The three men must be taken together. Civilian, soldier, and sailorman, they are *trio juncta in uno*, charged with one of the most responsible tasks ever imposed by Britain upon the most trusted of her sons.

For the report of the War Commission proved to all the world what had before its investigation been known only to a comparatively few,—that the British army as an organization had hopelessly broken down. The fact that after nearly three years' fighting we had by sheer force of numbers,—450,000 Britons against 70,000 Boers,—succeeded in compelling the decimated remnant of our foes to yield an enforced

assent to the annexation of their devastated country sufficed to conceal from the eyes of the unreflecting crowd the terribly tragic significance of the lessons of the war. There is no need to enter into detail. The War Commission reported that the army had broken down in our hands. And from that moment it became a matter of urgent national and imperial necessity to devise some method whereby a new and more efficient force could be created out of the ruins of the old system. The South African war was to the war office what the loss of Sebastopol was to the autocratic *régime* of Nicholas the First. The report of the War Commission is its epitaph. It depends upon Lord Esher, General Clarke, and Admiral Fisher, more than upon any other living men, whether a new, more

democratic, and more efficient system is to come into being.

I.—LORD ESHER.

The head of this small but extremely important commission is a peer who, so far as I know, has never made a speech in the House of Lords. He has never been caricatured in a popular newspaper; and although he has been a conspicuous figure at the two greatest pageants of our time, would probably not be recognized on any platform in the three kingdoms. It is nearly twenty years since Reginald Brett, now Lord Esher, sat as a Liberal member for Falmouth in the great Gladstone Parliament of 1880. He has written only two little books, "Footprints of Statesmen" and "The Yoke of Empire," which have found readers few but fit. At present, no one exactly knows to which political party he belongs. He has no political aspirations. Yet, as one who made his acquaintance but recently remarked, with an air of genuine astonishment, "What I cannot understand is why that man has never been prime minister!" He is the great dark horse of English public life.

When I first had the privilege of making his acquaintance, Lord Esher, then the Hon. Reginald Brett, was the private secretary of the Duke of Devonshire, then better known as the Marquis of Hartington, secretary of war. In that capacity, Lord Esher had the advantage of serving in the most intimate relations with the great Whig chief, and of becoming personally familiar with all the ins and outs of the war office. He was there during the whole series of Egyptian campaigns, which culminated in the scuttle from the Sudan when the menacing specter of the Rus-

LORD ESHER.

(Head of the new British army commission.)

sian Colossus fell athwart the frontier of Afghanistan. Few of the generals and high-placed functionaries of Pall Mall twenty years ago dreamed that the pleasant-spoken private secretary of the war secretary would in 1904 be selected, from all other men, for the supreme responsibility of remodeling the war office. In those days, "Reggie Brett" was regarded as being a *petit maître*, a *dilettante* in politics, slightly epicurean in his tastes. He kept a racing stud, moved in the best society, and was accused by his enemies of not being proof against the temptation of indulging in political intrigue.

When his father accepted a peerage, the certainty of ultimate exile to the House of Lords combined with the adoption of home rule by Mr. Gladstone to wean Mr. Brett from all taste for a political career. For some years he lived in comparative retirement in his charming house in Windsor Forest, surrounded by his books, his flowers, and his family, breeding a few race horses, and entertaining his friends. He seemed dead to political ambition. His friends, and they alone, knew how ardent a patriotic fire glowed behind the bars of his privacy, and they lamented the obstinacy with which he turned a deaf ear to all their representations. It was not till 1895, to the great surprise and delight of those who had grudged to Orchardlea the monopoly of talents which were meant for mankind, that he emerged from his retreat and became secretary to his majesty's office of works under Mr. Akers Douglas, then first commissioner, now home secretary. The office of works had a great deal to do at that time. More public buildings were being put up than for fifty years before, and the prospect of work on a grand scale tempted the recluse of Windsor Forest to return to the familiar arena of public work. As secretary, Lord Esher achieved an almost phenomenal success. He reformed the office of works to the complete satisfaction of his chief and of the public, and dispatched the business of the office with such ease and expedition that the unprecedented pressure of work was never felt. Such work as his is known only to the few. But by those few it was so well known and so much appreciated that he was urgently pressed to accept the post of permanent under-secretary in two of the most important departments of the administration of the empire. He refused them both. For Lord Esher is a man at whose door ministers, and sometimes even sovereigns, sue in vain.

In 1902, Lord Esher resigned the secretaryship of the board of works, but as he had been appointed deputy-governor of Windsor Castle, and was intrusted with the task of arranging

all the papers of the late Queen, his connection with the court continued unbroken. But it was not until the end of 1902 that he was afforded an opportunity of proving before the world that he possessed capacities the existence of which had long been known to those with whom he had worked in the service of the state. The hideous fiasco of the South African war lay like a nightmare upon the public mind. The ministers primarily responsible for a concatenation of disasters almost unparalleled in our history were bent upon hushing it up. Lord Salisbury saw no reason for an inquiry into the preparations for the war. Ministers had, however, evaded parliamentary debate by promising inquiry, much as Dick Swiveller settled his debts by accepting a bill. But bills become due, and ministers reluctantly were compelled to grant an inquiry which they would gladly have shirked. When the Royal Commission was constituted, few who ran over the list of the names of its members realized how searching would be its investigation, how unsparing would be its examination, how ruthless its exposure of the utter breakdown of the war office. Even those who ventured to hope that the commission would do its best did not realize that in Lord Elgin, Lord Esher, and Sir Taubman Goldie the empire had fortunately secured the services of three men who were of all others the best qualified for probing the matter to the depth. They were, indeed, ruthless, relentless, and remorseless.

When the inquiry began, and they refused to admit reporters, a wail of discontent arose from men who ought to have known better. For it was evident that if the truth had to be brought out, the witnesses would speak much more freely behind closed doors than if every word they said were to be reported next day in all the newspapers. Undeterred by the clamor of the press—which, oddly enough, has taken little pains since the report appeared to summarize the evidence taken by the commission—the commissioners prosecuted their inquiry with weariless pertinacity. They had all the culprits before them, with two great exceptions—and they spared none of them. Why Mr. Chamberlain and Lord Milner were not placed in the witness-box has never yet been explained. With these exceptions, any one else who was incriminated was subjected to drastic cross-examination. The bowdlerized evidence published with the report is sufficient testimony to the severity of the ordeal through which the generals and the officials were passed.

At last, when the evidence was complete, the commissioners drew up one of the most drastic reports ever presented to Parliament. The

studied moderation of its terms only brought into clearer relief the scathing severity of its conclusions. But after having set forth the facts in plain and full light of day, the commissioners stopped. It was left to Lord Esher and Sir George Taubman Goldie to make the only recommendation for a reconstruction of our military system that fell from any of the commissioners.

Lord Esher, in a note appended to the report, set forth in clear, succinct language his reasons for proposing to remodel the administration of the army upon the model of the administration which has succeeded so well in the navy. With this note, Sir George Taubman Goldie concurred. For some time after the publication of the report, with its accompanying notes, it seemed as if nothing would be done. Possibly nothing might have been done if it had not been for two factors. The first and the most important was the decision of the King; the second, which was only coincident and convenient, was the reconstruction of the cabinet necessitated by the departure of Mr. Chamberlain to stump the country in the cause of protection. These two elements in the situation combined to give Mr. Balfour a chance of which he was not slow to avail himself. The hopeless and impracticable Mr. Brodrick was shelved by transfer to the India office. Mr. Arnold Forster was made secretary of war after the post had been urgently pressed—and pressed in vain—upon Lord Esher; and Lord Esher, Sir George Clarke, and Admiral Fisher were appointed as a kind of omnipotent triumvirate to advise as to the creation of a board for the administrative business of the war office, and as to the consequential changes thereby involved.

It is curious how history repeats itself. In 1884, the nation was almost in despair about the condition of the navy. In that year, Mr. Arnold Forster, not, as now, a secretary of state, but only a private person—not even a private member of Parliament—induced me to undertake the inquiry into the deficiency of our navy which led to the publication of "The Truth About the Navy" and its coaling stations in the columns of the *Pall Mall Gazette*. The reconstruction of the British navy dates from that year. But it has never hitherto been made known that the two men who of all others were most helpful in the compilation of that memorable exposition of our naval deficiencies were no other than two of the men who are now named members of the commission for the reform of the war office. Without the assistance of Captain Fisher, of the *Excellent*, and of the Hon. Reginald Brett, the private secretary of the secretary of state for

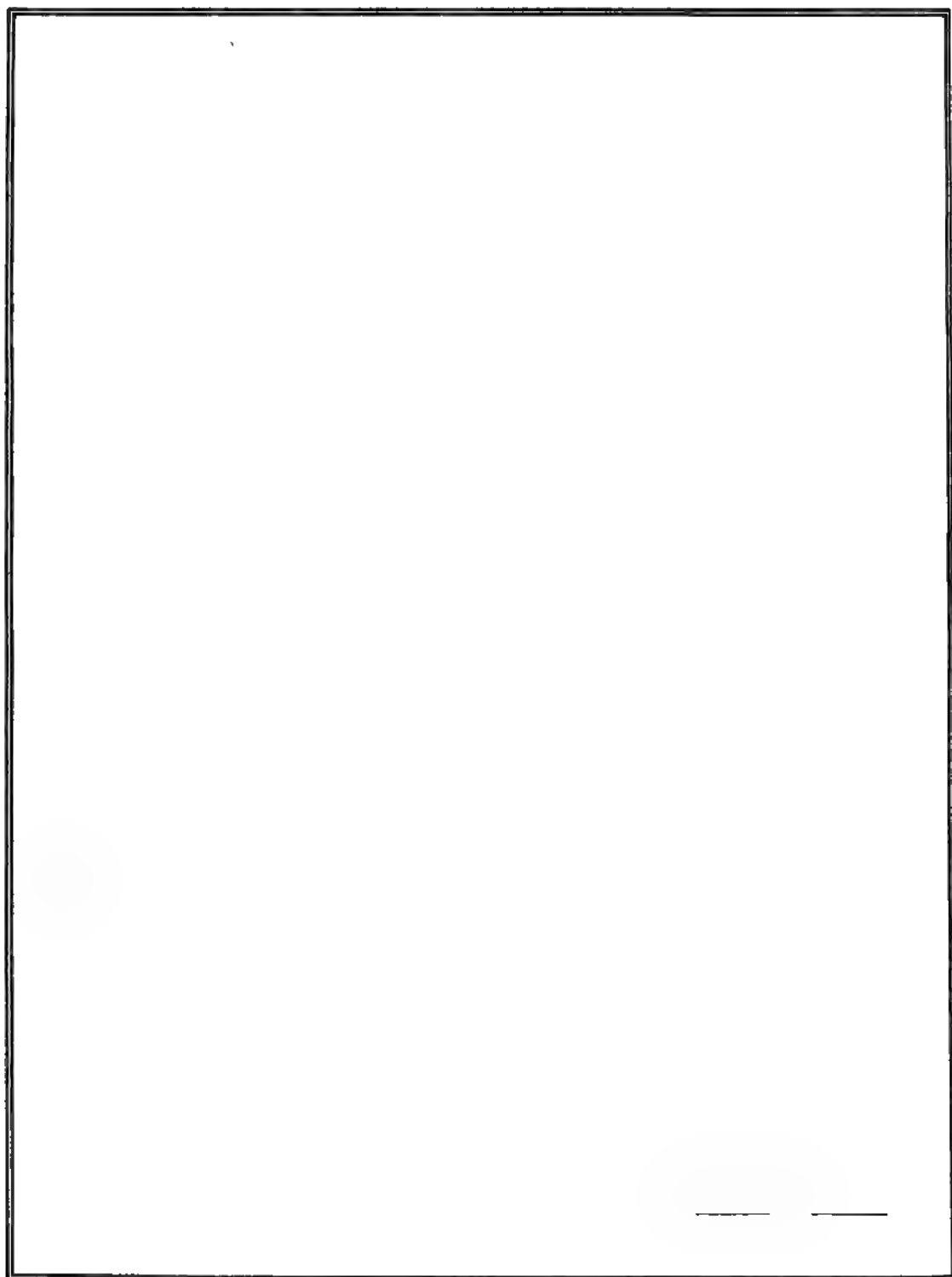
SIR GEORGE CLARKE.

war, "The Truth About the Navy" could never have been written.

II.—SIR GEORGE CLARKE.

"A d——d professional soldier" was the uncomplimentary phrase by which a soldier of the other sort described the military member of the commission of three which is to exercise the powers of the Council of Ten in Venice over the war office.

The phrase has this much truth in it: Sir George Clarke is a soldier, and a soldier who followed his profession as eminent lawyers and doctors and engineers follow theirs. He has lived in it, and for it, and has regarded it as the serious business of his life. To him, it has never been bad form to "talk shop," which, being interpreted, means to discuss the problems of his profession with fellow-students of the art and theory of war. He is not a feather-bed soldier, for he has been to the wars. Still less is he the



ADMIRAL SIR JOHN FISHER.

curled darling of plutocratic drawing-rooms, whose pets drive in hansom cabs to the parade-ground and absent themselves from the military maneuvers in order to shoot grouse. The army, which to many officers is a mere springboard from which the rich man's son can mount into good society and obtain a handle to his name, has been to Sir George Clarke, from his boyhood up, a serious calling, worthy to be prosecuted with all his might. That is why it is so good and hopeful a thing for the empire that he has been recalled from the governorship of Victoria and appointed military member of the famous junta.

Sir George Sydenham Clarke was born in 1848, the year of the great revolutionary overturn in Europe, on July 4—the anniversary of the declaration of American independence. He was the son of the Rev. W. J. Clarke, of Folkestone. Educated at Haileybury and at Wimbledon, he first made his mark when he entered the Royal Military Academy. In "Who's Who" it is stated somewhat enigmatically that he passed first into and first out of the Royal Military College. Entering the Royal Engineers when twenty years old, he received a staff appointment at the Royal Engineering College, at Cooper's Hill, in 1871, where he remained, doing good work and winning an excellent reputation among his pupils and his colleagues, until 1880. He used his pen freely, wrote upon such technical subjects as practical geometry and engineering drawing, the principles of graphic statics, and fortifications past, present, and future. He found time, in the midst of his more arduous avocations, to marry a general's daughter, and to amuse himself with the study of music and painting.

When the Egyptian war broke out, in 1882, he went with Lord Wolseley to the land of the Pharaohs, and when three years later Lord Wolseley returned to endeavor to rescue General Gordon, he accompanied him to the Sudan. In both these expeditions he distinguished himself sufficiently to be appointed assistant political officer and head of the Intelligence Department at Suakin, where he took part in various fights, which led to his being honorably mentioned in dispatches.

It was after his return from Egypt that he became a kind of man-of-all-work and general special high commissioner of the war office. He was sent here and there and everywhere, wherever important work had to be done. His list of missions include "special duty" in Sweden, Berlin, Paris, Linz, Belgium, Bucharest, the United States, Halifax (Nova Scotia), and Magdeburg. Even more notable than his special-duty missions were his secretarships. The

secretary of a great departmental or royal commission is usually a much more important man than the president. He is usually the soul of the inquiry. He prepares everything in advance, and elaborates everything for the report when the inquiry is over. Sir George Clarke was the secretary of Lord Hartington's commission on army and navy administration, in 1893. He took a leading hand in framing the recommendations of that committee, and acquitted himself with such satisfaction that he was five years later appointed secretary of the Colonial Defense Committee, for his services in which capacity he was rewarded by the K.C.M.G. He was then superintendent of the royal carriage department at Woolwich.

When the South African war revealed the weakness of our system of administration, he was one of the first to be appointed to what is known as the Dawkins Committee on the War Office. He won golden opinions from the head of that commission, and showed a mastery of detail and a grasp of principle which marked him out to all with a discerning eye as the man of all others who would be called upon should ministers ever be compelled to take the question of army reform seriously in hand.

Whether there was a foreboding of this in high places and a desire to avert the inevitable, is not known; but in October, 1901, to the surprise of many and the regret of all who had anticipated his employment nearer home, Sir George was suddenly whisked off to act as governor of the self-governing colony of Victoria. No one knew more about the colonies than Sir George Clarke, whose great work on imperial defense has almost become a text-book; but most people agreed with Lieutenant-General Sankey in frankly regretting Sir George's banishment to the Antipodes when he was so urgently needed nearer home. It is useless, however, against the fates to strive; and when the crisis became acute, Sir George Clarke had to be brought back from Victoria as hurriedly as he had been dispatched thither. And at Christmas he arrived to take his place in the council of three.

III.—ADMIRAL SIR JOHN FISHER.

Forty-nine years ago, a little lad of twelve was admitted to the navy on board Nelson's old flagship *Victory*. He passed an examination in the rule of three, and drank a glass of sherry with the officers. His name was duly entered in a book that is still extant in Portsmouth.

The naval career of Admiral Sir John Fisher had begun. He was the last midshipman re-

ceived into the service by Admiral Sir William Parker, whose chief title to fame lies in the fact, duly recorded upon his tombstone at Winchfield, that he was the last of Nelson's captains.

By a curious coincidence, this boy, who entered the navy in 1854, was flying his flag as admiral commanding-in-chief at Portsmouth dockyard when it was decided by the powers that be to lay up the *Victory*, and to destroy, apparently from pure wantonness, the most famous naval relic of the glories of the British navy. Fortunately, his majesty intervened in time to prevent this outrage upon the national sentiment of the country, and the *Victory* was saved.

Eighteen years ago, when I began my investigations into the state of the navy, I was told by those who knew the service from the top to the bottom that I would find no abler officer afloat or ashore than one Captain Fisher, who had commanded the *Inflexible* at the bombardment of Alexandria, and who was at that moment captain of the *Excellent*.

I sought an introduction to him, which I obtained with some difficulty, for the rules of the service against giving any information to the press were very strict. When I used to go to Captain Fisher, like Nicodemus, at night-time, meeting him at wayside railway stations, I found him, wherever I met him, always the same,—one of the pleasantest, frankest, and clearest-sighted of men. "Fisher," said an admiral to me in those days, "is the one man we have got who can be compared to Nelson. If Britain were involved in a great naval war, Fisher could achieve as great renown as that of Lord Nelson." His subsequent career has fully justified the confidence expressed in him by his superior officers.

Admiral Fisher since then has commanded the Mediterranean fleet, and it is no exaggeration to say that it is largely owing to the splendid state of efficiency of that fleet under his command that the peace of Europe was maintained in the critical years when the whole land fighting force of the empire was absorbed in South Africa. He is a supreme type of the modern naval officer at his best. Although sixty-two years of age, Admiral Fisher is in the full vigor of manhood, and as hearty a boy as he was in the days when he first joined the navy in the Crimean War. When he represented the navy at the conference at The Hague, where he did admirable service, he was known as "the dancing admiral." And even now, when commander-in-chief at Portsmouth dockyard, he still thinks nothing of attending ten dancing

parties in a fortnight, takes part in every dance, and does not go home till 3 o'clock in the morning. He is brim-full of vigor, energy, and buoyant vitality. But for all his devotion to the dance, no man is a keener student, nor has any one a more masterly grasp of all the latest improvements in naval warfare.

He is a man born to command, who inspires confidence alike in his superiors and among his subordinates. Nelson, as may well be imagined, is the god of his idolatry. He is saturated in every fiber with the Nelsonian tradition. He has served his country on almost every naval station, he has been a sea lord at the admiralty, and sooner or later will take his proper place as the first sea lord at Whitehall. On listening to his brilliant conversation, every sentence of which is double-shotted with wit and common sense, I have been constantly reminded of two men who, however diverse from each other and from him, nevertheless possess one great characteristic in common. Admiral Fisher, like Cecil Rhodes and General Gordon, is passionately devoted to his country, and, like them, is vehemently impatient of all the mediocrities who, shackled in red tape, exhaust all their energy in the mere detail of administration, and have neither time nor capacity left for attending to the proper work of direction. Admiral Fisher is a holy terror to skulkers and shufflers, but he has an infinite faith in the capacity of education and discipline. "Give me a boy young enough," he declared, "and I can make anything out of him." For there is in him, as in all great leaders of men, an infinite faith in the latent potentiality of human nature. He is a born optimist, and contact with him kindles enthusiasm even among the dullards. Few men have so great a gift of forcible expression; his conversation teems with apothegms. But there is a jovial geniality about him which makes every one feel at his ease. If so be that it is necessary to call in the aid of a sailorman in order to advise as to the best method of reforming the administration of the war office, no better choice could have been made than that of Admiral Fisher.

He enjoys to an almost unprecedented extent the confidence of his King and of his country, while as for the navy, there would probably be a unanimous vote in the service if all sailormen ashore and afloat were to be asked to vote as to what great sea captain of our time was best qualified to lead the navy of Great Britain to victory in a great naval war.

TWO GREAT CONFEDERATES.

GENERAL JOHN B. GORDON AND GENERAL JAMES LONGSTREET: CHARACTERIZATIONS BY A FRIEND OF BOTH.

BY JOHN S. WISE.

[By an interesting and significant coincidence, two old Confederate "war horses," Gordon and Longstreet, passed away last month within a week of each other. The REVIEW OF REVIEWS is able to present the following sympathetic characterizations by one who knew them both well. A son of the famous Gov. Henry A. Wise, of Virginia, himself an ex-Confederate who became a Republican after the war, John S. Wise is peculiarly well fitted to outline the lives and characters of these men, who indeed mark "The End of an Era."—EDITOR.]

I.—GENERAL JAMES LONGSTREET.

THE death of General Longstreet has attracted little attention. The American people, engrossed in new subjects of public interest in which he bore no part, have, to a great extent, put behind them consideration of that grim, gigantic tragedy of forty years ago in which he was one of the foremost actors.

He died at the age of eighty-three. Fifty-seven years ago, his name became familiar to the American people as that of one of the brilliant band of West Pointers whose gallantry in Mexico made manifest the good effects of training at the Military Academy.

From 1847 until now, he has stood in public view, his greatest prominence having been attained as lieutenant-general in the Confederate service, commanding the first corps of the army of Lee.

Since the war ended, his position has been somewhat unique both in politics and toward his former comrades. His controversies concerning the conduct of the Civil War, and his attitude as a Southern Republican, have kept him prominently before the public.

Longstreet was born in South Carolina, in 1821, accompanied a widowed mother to Alabama when he was a small boy, and in manhood became a resident of Georgia, of which State he was a citizen until the time of his death. Little seems to be known of his social antecedents, a factor which is always more important in the South than in the North or the West.

In one of his numerous articles upon the Civil War, he informs us who among the distinguished generals, North and South, were his classmates at West Point. They were the Union generals Pope, John Newton, Rosecrans, George Sykes, Abner Doubleday, and others of less

note; and among the Confederate generals, D. H. Hill, McLaws, Lovell, Gustavus W. Smith, A. P. Stewart, and Earl Van Dorn. He also tells us that Stonewell Jackson came four years after him, and that General Lee preceded him by twelve years.

When we consider how long ago all the others went to their rest, his name seems indeed the echo of a far-distant past. Yet it was, and ever

From a recent photograph.

THE LATE GEN. JAMES LONGSTREET.

will remain, an heroic epoch of absorbing interest in our national history, and in that past he was "ever foremost amid the flashing of the guns."

A young lieutenant in the Mexican War, he was promoted to the rank of captain for conspicuous gallantry in sundry engagements, and continued in the service of the United States until 1861, when he resigned his position as paymaster. He was at once appointed brigadier-general in the Confederate service, to command, at Manassas, a brigade composed of a regiment from North Carolina and three from Virginia.

Longstreet's brigade was, it is said, the best-drilled body of troops upon the ground when the first battle of Manassas was fought. His position was on the right of the Confederate line, as Beauregard expected McDowell to make the first attack upon his right. But the first battle of Manassas was not conducted upon any military plan theretofore known, if, indeed, there was any plan about it.

Longstreet's command was not actively engaged. His whole casualties amounted to two killed and twelve wounded. But, even at that early day, everybody, officers and soldiers, recognized his military strength. He was promoted to be major-general, commanding a division of Johnston's army in the Peninsula campaign which followed Manassas.

On the retreat of Johnston from Yorktown to Richmond, in the spring of 1862, Longstreet commanded his rear guard and fought the battle of Williamsburg. Both sides claimed the victory; but Johnston's claim seems the most plausible, as he took some prisoners, slept on the battle-field, retreated at his leisure, and the battle greatly retarded the advance of McClellan up the Peninsula. On the Confederate side, the action increased the confidence of the soldiers in Longstreet.

He commanded the right wing of Johnston's army at Seven Pines with marked ability; but even then, in his report of the engagement, General Johnston rather complained that Longstreet was "slow" in his attack. This criticism may have been deserved. The judgment of soldiers upon the traits of their commanding officers is, as a rule, correct; and the soldiers of Lee's army invariably referred to Longstreet as slow of movement. That did not, however, militate against the conviction that, if he was slow, he was sure; and that his blows, when delivered, made up, in mass and momentum, for whatever they lacked in velocity.

From that time, the star of Longstreet was in the ascendant. In the organization of the Army of Northern Virginia, and in the seven days' fighting around Richmond, he commanded a divi-

sion composed of Pickett's, Kemper's, R. H. Anderson's, Featherstone's, Willcox's, and Pryor's brigades. These were among the best troops in Lee's army. Their conspicuous part in the seven days' fighting, in the Rappahannock, second Manassas, Antietam, and Fredericksburg campaigns need not be detailed. It is sufficient to say that the fame of Longstreet and his division was on the tongue of every enthusiastic Confederate. By this time, the army knew him as "Old Pete," a term of endearment the origin of which is unknown to the writer.

When, in October, 1862, President Davis called upon General Lee to recommend two names for promotion to the command of corps in his army, with the rank of lieutenant-general, Lee wrote: "I can confidently recommend Generals Longstreet and Jackson in this army. My opinion of the merits of General Jackson has been greatly enhanced during this expedition."

Thus, we see that Longstreet was named first by Lee, without feeling that comment upon the fitness of that nomination was necessary, while it would seem that he deemed it requisite to give a reason justifying his recommendation of Jackson. To be promoted senior to Stonewall Jackson as late as the autumn of 1862 was an honor indeed. Longstreet was commissioned as commander of the first corps of Lee's army, and remained such until its surrender.

Early in 1863, he was sent with his corps upon detached service. He rejoined the army in time for the Pennsylvania campaign, and participated in the battle of Gettysburg, in which, under his immediate command, was made the immortal charge of Pickett's division. Out of that arose a controversy which for many years was waged with bitterness and biting satire.

After the battle of Gettysburg, Lee, at Longstreet's instance, detached the first corps and sent it to the succor of Bragg. It joined the western army in time to take a conspicuous part in the battle of Chickamauga, and afterward Longstreet, with his corps, joined in the movement upon Knoxville.

The first corps rejoined Lee's army early in 1864, participated in the Wilderness, Spottsylvania, Cold Harbor, and Petersburg campaigns, and surrendered at Appomattox.

This is, of necessity, a skeleton sketch of the military career of General Longstreet. He unquestionably rendered invaluable service to the Confederate cause, and was severely wounded in several engagements. When he bade adieu to his soldiers and his commander at Appomattox, the devotion of the Army of Northern Virginia to him was second only to that it felt for General Lee himself.

General Lee was perhaps personally attached to Longstreet more than to any of his other commanders. In many respects, they were more congenial than any other two officers of the army. Lee was not a demonstrative man, but he had strong attachments and keen appreciation of his associates. Toward the last, young Gordon, who was the rising man of the army, was taken into Lee's confidences; but Longstreet came nearer to fitting General Lee's own temperament than any of his great lieutenants.

Longstreet was not a man of great intellectuality. In independent command, thrown upon his own resources, he would never have achieved great success. He possessed, however, elements of courage and strength, coupled with intelligence sufficient to comprehend and execute orders, which made him a corps commander of the first grade. He was of that type of soldier impersonated under Wellington by Picton; under Napoleon, by several of his great field marshals.

Lee was devoted to Longstreet. At different times he referred to him as his "old wheelhorse," his "good right arm," and by other affectionate designations. On the march, he rode oftener with Longstreet than with anybody else, and often pitched his headquarters near the commander of the first corps.

This intimacy and confidence lasted long after Gettysburg; in fact, until the end of the war. It was a natural affiliation, too. Longstreet was faultlessly brave, without an ambition that was troublesome. He was healthy and strong without being run away with by his animal spirits. He was sufficiently intellectual to be sympathetic and to enable him to comprehend and execute his commander's orders without becoming annoying by intruding original ideas and suggestions.

The companionship of such a lieutenant was doubtless comforting and restful to Lee. The very knowledge of Longstreet's limitations was reassuring to him, no doubt. He was brave, loyal, cautious, reticent, unobtrusive of his own ideas, but valuable, doubtless, as a counselor touching such of Lee's plans as he chose to confide to him. In his simplicity, strength, courage, and reasonable intelligence, he may be likened to the favorite charger, which, while he may not be handsome and mettlesome as some other, is preferred in battle by his rider because he has no "tricks."

If Lee and Longstreet had lived together for twenty years after Gettysburg, no friction would have arisen between them out of the conduct of that battle. Lee was too considerate of Longstreet's great services to the Confederacy, both before and after Gettysburg, to reproach him for

that day, even if he felt that he was subject to censure. He would have soothed Longstreet's irritation, if others had aroused it, for Longstreet loved Lee and admired him greatly. He was conscious of Lee's superiority. His nature was of grosser texture than Lee's, his mental and moral fiber coarser. When the two were in contact, Lee's influence dominated him; his perceptions were quickened, his moral nature ennobled, by the spell of Lee's presence.

This relation between soldiers is not uncommon. It has been noted and commented upon by students and writers through all history. It is seized upon by the versatile Dumas to draw the picture of the subtle mind of Athos guiding the battle-axe strength of Porthos.

Longstreet had certain ingrained petty prejudices which must have existed before his association with Lee, but which seem to have been held in subjection while they were together. In his post-bellum controversies with his surviving Confederate associates, he took no pains to conceal and did not hesitate to express them. Such feelings appear singular to one who knew him well, for in his daily intercourse he was the gentlest of friends, and seemed entirely free from envy or hatred or malice.

It is difficult to locate the origin of his prejudice against what he frequently deprecated as the "Virginia influence." But he had it as distinctly as did Aaron Burr in the time of Washington. Possibly it grew out of the old line-and-staff controversy which existed in the army between Scott and Taylor, when Scott was charged with working in the interest of the Virginians. Possibly it had its origin further back, in a feeling which has always existed, to a certain extent, among a certain class in the States south of Virginia, that the Virginians considered themselves better than anybody else. Possibly it was Longstreet's crude notion of how to create a diversion to secure support when he became a controversial politician; and possibly his criticism of General Lee, as discriminating in favor of his Virginia subordinates, may have had some apparent, though no real, justification. But Longstreet never should have been the one to say it. He never would have said it except under strong irritation, for Lee named him, the South Carolinian, or Alabamian, or Georgian, over Virginia's Stonewall Jackson, and it will be hard to convince posterity that Lee, in his subsequent selections of Ewell, A. P. Hill, and Gordon to be lieutenant-generals, promoted them over the heads of better soldiers.

The "Virginia influence," public and private, was thrown to Longstreet with generous love.

There was not a home in all Virginia to which he was not ever welcomed with open arms. The brigade, the division, the corps, which bought his fame with their blood, were in great part Virginians, and the roster of his dead soldiers is like a roll-call of those Virginia "aristocrats" whose dominancy he deprecated, in after-years, apparently forgetful of what he owed to them.

General Lee died in 1870. Longstreet, who had taken up his residence in New Orleans, became a Republican and a supporter of Grant. This he had a perfect right to do. Neither political party of that day had any claim upon the allegiance of the Confederate soldier as such. It is true that the vast majority of ex-Confederates became Democrats; but it was from sentiment, and prejudice against the Republicans, rather than from reason or conviction. Be this as it may, it is certain that becoming a Republican brought down upon the head of any ex-Confederate the execration of the great mass of his old comrades.

Longstreet never was a man of much ideality; certainly, he was not a political philosopher. His attitude was the result, perhaps, of personal acquaintance with and admiration of Grant.

Grant promptly appointed him to a federal office in New Orleans, as he well might, for he was sadly short of decent material in his party there to fill the offices. Longstreet accepted the place, perhaps not fully realizing how soon it would bring him into direct physical antagonism with his old associates.

It was not long before one of those revolutions, or riots, which took place against the carpet-bag and scalawag government of Louisiana, occurred in New Orleans. Longstreet found himself in the federal custom-house with the police force and so-called government, besieged by men whom he had led to battle many a day in Lee's army. The reader will recall the fight that ensued and the overthrow of the Radicals, as they were called. The writer, who visited New Orleans shortly after this conflict, remembers vividly the feeling concerning Longstreet.

An ardent youngster who had led one of the companies in the assault on the Radical barricades described the appearance and conduct of Longstreet as follows: "Say what you will about old Longstreet, he is not afraid. When the fighting was at the hottest, and bullets were flying in every direction, he walked out of the custom-house and along the street for half a block, communicated whatever he had to say to one of the police officers drawn up behind the barricades, and returned to the building as coolly as if he had been going to church. Several people tried to hurry him. He simply shook

his head and waved them off, as if to say: 'Oh, go away; I'm not afraid of them. They cannot harm me.' And I do not believe they could, for several men told me they shot at him at point-blank range and never touched him."

A few years after this, Longstreet wrote an account of the battle of Gettysburg in which he claimed that the assault upon the heights was ordered by General Lee against his protest; that his advice was to turn Meade's flank, interpose between Meade and the national capital, select a position of strength, and force Meade to attack. He claimed that he was overruled by Lee.

Some writers upon Gettysburg had charged that the failure of Pickett's assault resulted from Longstreet's delay in making the charge,—from sunrise, the hour at which it had been ordered, until 3 o'clock in the afternoon. The contention was that if the assault had been made at the early hour Meade's troops would not have been up, and the attack would have been successful.

Longstreet's reply to these critics is strong in some respects and weak in others. It is strong in the statement of the undeniable fact that Lee was on the ground personally, near enough to have ordered and compelled the assault at an early hour if that was essential, and to have stopped the assault if the making of it was delayed too long. It is strong also in the statement,—which nobody denies,—that after the assault had been made and failed, Lee not only accepted the responsibility for it, but continued his confidence and friendship for Longstreet unabated to the end.

But Longstreet's articles are weak in that they show that the attacks of inferior officers and the estrangements of intervening political controversies had changed his feelings toward his old comrades, toward President Davis, whom he addressed as "Mr. Jefferson Davis," and even toward the memory of his beloved commander and friend, Lee, who was dead.

It gave an opening for one of the keenest thrusts of satire in the English language, penned by Gen. Dick Taylor, son of Zachary Taylor, found in his book "Destruction and Reconstruction." The paragraph epitomizes in three sentences the feelings of all Longstreet's military antagonists, and is reproduced, not because this writer was of their number, but to show the point and bitterness of the dispute, and to let the other side be heard. Says Taylor (1879):

A recent article in the public press, signed by General Longstreet, ascribes the failure at Gettysburg to Lee's mistakes, which he (Longstreet) in vain pointed out and remonstrated against. That any subject involving the possession and exercise of intellect should be clear to Longstreet and concealed from Lee is a start-

deeply. The old man arose in response to their cheers, but his strength was unequal to a sustained effort.

This sketch has sought to depict him as he was, both in his strength and in his weakness, and not to place him on a pedestal or drag him down. He was physically, mentally, and morally the highest type of a military subordinate. Physically, because he had the strength, health, patience, endurance, and courage which is typified among animals by ox and lion. Mentally, because he possessed capacity to understand and execute commands, without marring obedience by intruding his own initiative, or by mental activities which questioned or doubted. Morally, because by nature he never felt a doubt that he owed full service to the master under whom he served.

Longstreet was not created to adorn a solitary shaft of fame, but no monument to Lee will ever be complete unless around the central column surmounted by himself are grouped his great lieutenants, Longstreet, Jackson, Stuart, and A. P. Hill. Nor will all the bitterness or the weakness of after-years mar Longstreet's title to stand there, or cast one shadow upon his figure in that immortal group.

The writer is one of those Confederates who, long after the war was ended, became, like Longstreet, a

Republican. He knows, as Longstreet knew, only in less degree, by reason of the writer's insignificance, the bitterness of taunt and fling from old Confederate comrade; the temptation to answer back; the danger of saying, in hot blood, inconsiderate things which might be tortured by hostile critics into expressions of disloyalty to Confederate memories. Yet, in his own heart, and by his own feelings, he knows that Longstreet, in allying himself with the Republican party after the Confederacy was dead and buried beyond the hand of the resurrectionist, neither felt nor implied a change of feeling to cause or comrade in the "lost cause." That to the former he had been "first at the Cross and last at the Sepulchre," and to the latter he was bound by ties of common dangers and sacrifices and privations and triumphs and defeats indissoluble by any differences of to-day.

No Democratic Confederate veteran should feel otherwise toward Longstreet. It took the

From an engraving made in 1862.

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ling proposition to those having knowledge of the two men. We have biblical authority for the story that the angel in the path was visible to the ass, though unseen by the seer, his master; but suppose, instead of smiting the honest stupid animal, Balaam had caressed him, and then been kicked by him, how would the story read?

President Hayes made Longstreet marshal of the Northern District of Georgia. Afterward, he held several important positions in the consular and departmental service under Republican administrations.

In the McKinley campaign of 1896, the writer spoke in the Opera House at Atlanta to an immense audience of representative people of the city. A great Republican revival had occurred there, and many of the leading citizens came out boldly for the Republican candidate. General Longstreet was present. He was very old, very feeble, and very deaf. Old-time political prejudices against him had subsided, and the underlying affection of his people, manifested by their great enthusiasm, must have touched him

same courage of conviction that made him a Confederate soldier to sustain him in separating, in politics, from old comrades. If he believed in Republican tenets, he was ten times the man, when he joined that party, that he would have been if, for the sake of old associations, he had quelled his convictions and embraced what he believed to be the crimes, the blunders, the follies, the hypocrisies, the lack of principles, of Democracy, for no better reason than that his old comrades had indorsed them. The time will come, if it is not already here, when ex-Confederates will realize that Republicanism and Democracy have not, and never have had, anything to do with loyalty to the memories of our Confederate struggles; that in both parties may be found to-day some of the best Confederates, differing only in this, if at all, that no Republican ex-Confederate cherishes one spark of resentment against our government for the past, or would disturb one stone in the reunited structure, even if he had Lee's army in its zenith at his back. It is not disloyalty to the dead Con-

federacy to realize by experience and admit that our nation is more glorious, more free, than it ever could have been if it had been divided.

Love for the dead, loyalty for the living, honor for the brave, forgiveness for the past, fraternity for the future, should be the common platform of all surviving ex-Confederates. The Confederate who refuses to shed a tear at Longstreet's grave has forgotten not only the battle-flag of Longstreet but the magnanimity of Lee.

The valor of the Confederate soldier, above all else, is what commands and will preserve the respect of coming times for the Confederate effort. No man contributed more freely of his all than did Longstreet to the high estimate which the world places upon Confederate valor.

May his ashes rest in peace; may his soul reach heaven; may the "Virginia influence" not vex him there, however prevalent he may find it. One thing is known to every ex-Confederate,—Lee will never reproach him for Gettysburg or any happening since.

II.—GENERAL JOHN B. GORDON.

REVIEWING a life like that which closed when John B. Gordon died is a pleasant task, no matter how mournful it may be.

Many of those traits which tend to exalt our opinion of our fellow-man entered into his composition. Although his fighting quality brought him into public view, a loving and lovable nature was ever discernible in Gordon, even when he assumed his fiercest aspect.

The writer's personal acquaintance with him lasted for forty years. It began in June, 1864, at Lynchburg, Va., when Gordon commanded a division under Early, and had its origin in one of those acts of gentle courtesy from a superior which leave an indelible impression upon the heart of the youthful subordinate. From that time, a warm friendship existed between us, which continued through all the years that followed, unabated by subsequent differences in political views.

Gordon was then a striking figure. Tall, slight of build, erect, high-headed, graceful afoot and mounted, alert, self-poised in the center of a group of oft-tried young staff officers much akin to him in martial ardor, he led forth his troops with the grace and dignity and mingled air of command and guardianship which we see in the monarch of the herd. Women adored him. Men died for him. And he went on fighting, unspoiled by his marvelous success, which was as surprising to him as to anybody else. His

career as a soldier was so brilliant, his attitude toward the Government, after the war ended, was so admirable, his advice to old comrades and former foes was always so true-hearted, that these things will remain as lessons and inspirations to courage to all his countrymen, regardless of the views which any one may hold concerning the Civil War.

His book of war reminiscences is fresh from the press. It is defective in literary merit and in the orderly sequence of the narrative; but it is a model of modesty and charity, and its deficiencies are atoned for by a charming simplicity which leaves no doubt that he had faith in the righteousness of his cause, as well as the courage of his convictions. The book is written as if he felt that his time had come; as if he were telling his life-story in that consciousness; as if he knew that he would soon go forth to meet the last enemy, death, and intended to do so as calmly as he had marched to all his other battle-fields.

Gordon's fame rests upon his military record. That record rests upon his natural, untrained, military genius, supported by courage to which fear was a stranger.

When events which had in no way been brought about by him called him into military service, he was less than thirty years of age. His life had been devoted altogether to civil pursuits, and he had not even enjoyed the ad-

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vantages of travel. His mental horizon was bounded by knowledge of his specialty, and his ambition would have been satisfied with a prosperous, happy, domestic life. He was married,—happily married,—to a beautiful and devoted girl. They had been blessed with two man-children, and everything about his home was calculated to allure him to its continued enjoyment. Yet neither young Gordon nor his wife doubted for a moment that he should respond to the war-cry. He recruited a company of Georgia mountaineers in coon-skin caps, and they bled themselves to the lowlands, without delay, in search of the fight.

So keen was their quest that, impatient of the delays of the Georgia authorities at Atlanta, they moved onward to Montgomery and tendered their services to the Alabama authorities, where they were at once enrolled in the Sixth Alabama Regiment. Gordon, to his surprise, and against protests of ignorance and unfitness, was commissioned major. They were sent to Corinth for a few days, but at that time all roads, North and South, led to Virginia. A month later, the Sixth Alabama, including Gordon's "Raccoon Roughs," was campaigning in the Old Dominion, red to the knees in her sacred soil, and quenching their thirst in springs from which George Washington's troops had drunk a hundred years before.

Gordon's uniform as a field officer was a bottle-green frock coat with United States army

buttons. One can almost see the expression upon the face of Ewell, a regular, to whom he reported at Manassas, when he first caught sight of this uniform. Yet Ewell subsequently learned that Gordon was not as green as he appeared. His command was not actively engaged at Manassas, although it did excellent scouting service, and after that battle a long period of idleness ensued. The winter quarters on the Occoquan during a severe and protracted season of cold, in the winter of 1861-62, tested the endurance of the men from the far South.

Gordon's chances of advancement and distinction in his new vocation were ten thousand to one against him. The Confederate president, the adjutant-general of the army, and every commander were West Pointers. The war office was overcrowded with unassigned officers of the United States army who had resigned upon the promise of appointment to a grade at least equal to the one surrendered. Behind these stood the throng of political aspirants who at all such times clamor for high office. The proverbial contempt of regulars for militiamen, the equally proverbial success of politicians, and his own confessed ignorance and inexperience of all pertaining to military science must have made the outlook seem very gloomy, even if he regarded promotion as a possibility.

Promotion and death opened the way for him, in time, among the regulars, and everybody knows that a year of war is sufficient to relegate the average political warrior to the joys of his own fireside. Gordon bided his time, performed his full duty upon every field, surprised his commanding officers and comrades with his display of courage and military sagacity, and, step by step, cautiously but surely, tested his capacities and threaded his way onward through all the mazes of discouragement as he learned his art by practice. In the end, he reaped his reward in promotion, at the age of thirty-three, to the command of an army corps.

Besides this remarkable achievement, he was actor in a romance in real life, as well known to the army as his generalship and courage—a romance which endeared him greatly to the men. Mrs. Gordon was a charming creature. She was but a girl then. True, she had two children, but they were not with her, and the soldiers, beholding her tall, willowy form, her blooming youth, her gazelle eyes, lighted with love and patriotic fire, looked upon her as the bride of their beloved commander. At the outbreak of hostilities, her difficulty was not in deciding what was her husband's duty,—that was clear,—but what was her own. To the decision of that she invoked her marriage vow, and, for-

commanding officer as others of her class. This was true especially when Gordon served under Early, whose experience with ladies was exceedingly limited.

When Gordon was fighting at bloody Seven Pines; when, day after day, he charged and charged again, in the desperate seven days' battles around Richmond, Mrs. Gordon was within sound of every cannon and volley of musketry that marked the progress of the fighting. A companion thus describes her: "The cannon was roaring around the horizon like some vast earthquake on huge, crashing wheels. She asked me to accompany her to a hill a short distance away. There she listened in silence. Pale and quiet, with clasped hands, she sat statue-like, with her face toward the field of battle. Her self-control was wonderful, — only the quick-drawn sigh from the bottom of her heart revealed the depth of emotion that was struggling there."

In the autumn of 1862, the tide of battle drifted away to far-off Antietam. She followed him. Until then, he had escaped harm. He had exposed himself so often and so recklessly that his men began to think he bore

From General Gordon's "Reminiscences of the Civil War," recently published by Charles Scribner's Sons.

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saking all others, she clung unto him. The children and their nurse were placed with Captain Gordon's mother, and Mrs. Gordon accompanied him and remained with him throughout the war, as much a part of the army as any camp-follower, and often as obnoxious to the

a charmed life. Antietam dispelled that illusion; for there he fell pierced with five wounds. His devoted young wife was among the first to reach him; and although his chances for recovery seemed desperate, her love and care wooed him back, almost miraculously, to health.

When he fought in the disastrous battle of Winchester, in 1864, Mrs. Gordon was in the town. When his shattered division streamed through the streets, harried and pursued by a victorious enemy, she rushed out among the men, regardless of shot and shell, and appealed to them, by the love they bore him and her, to rally once more to his support, and they responded with a cheer. Throughout the long siege of Petersburg, she dwelt in that beleaguered town, not a mile away from where her husband fought in the trenches. When the city fell, she passed into the hands of a generous foe.

Gordon rode back to her from Appomattox, seeking, in that hour of his greatest sorrow, the truest, most unselfish friend he ever had. They journeyed home together. The peaceful domestic life, with their children about them, was resumed, and for forty years they were spared to each other in peace and love, until, now that death has once more wrought its inevitable mystery, she is alone.

With this before us in our own day and time, why turn to ancient ballad for our stories of "gallant knight and ladye faire?" It were pedantry to call the roll of fair and brave of chivalry to contrast them with a love like this. Yet this I say: Not since the sacred shield of Lancelot was held in keeping by the fair Elaine has woman's love shown more conspicuously than here, or found a knightlier breast on which to pillow its anguished constancy.

Before the end of the seven days' battle, the gallant Rodas, commanding his brigade, was wounded, and so many field officers had fallen that Gordon succeeded to temporary command of the brigade. At Malvern Hill, in Hill's division, his brigade led the assault under a fire so hot that his canteen on one side of his body and his pistol-hilt on the other were both struck by bullets. His troops reached a position at the foot of Malvern Hill, beneath the utmost angle of depression of McClellan's guns; but Gordon's supports, on either side, were repulsed, and his command was left in great danger of capture, until he was enabled to retreat to the Confederate lines under the protection of darkness.

The most conspicuous instance of Gordon's personal courage was given at Antietam. His brigade held a position in Hill's division, at an exposed point near the center of Lee's line of battle. Lee cautioned Gordon that it was a dangerous and vital point, and Gordon gave his personal pledge to Lee that he would hold it until the sun went down. Space forbids full description of the matchless gallantry with which he redeemed that pledge, but his personal ex-

periences will convey some idea of the struggle. He received, first, a shot through the calf of his right leg; second, another shot higher up in the same leg; third, a bullet through the left arm; fourth, a bullet through the shoulder. Notwithstanding these four wounds, he remained upon the field, so weak from loss of blood that he could barely totter back and forth to give his orders, until a fifth bullet struck him squarely in the face, passed outwardly, just missing the jugular vein, and rendered him senseless.

He was borne from the field unconscious, without any hope among his comrades that he could survive; yet he did revive a few hours later, with vitality sufficient to make a jest of his misfortunes when his wife, almost heart-broken, appeared upon the scene. Gordon chafed over the seven months' enforced leave resulting from these manifold mutilations. To the day of his death, the dimple of Antietam in his cheek was the handsomest feature of his manly face.

Released from the bonds of wounds, he rushed back to the war, assumed command of a fine brigade of Georgians in Early's division, and, as if to make up for lost time, shortly afterward electrified Lee's army by a brilliant charge at Fredericksburg, in which his brigade, unsupported, assaulted and recaptured Marye's Heights.

He was in Ewell's corps of Early's division during the Pennsylvania campaign, and marched as far as the Susquehanna River. Not the least of the honors due him are those for his scrupulous observance of Lee's orders touching the behavior of his men in the enemy's country. Gordon's conduct in respect was above reproach, and is remembered gratefully in the section which he invaded. He reached Gettysburg, upon the return march, July 1, 1863, when the first day's battle was at its height. His command was hurled quickly upon the rear of the Federal right with tremendous effect. He tells us that he had broken the Federal line, and was driving Howard's troops before him in great confusion, when, to his disgust and in spite of his protest, he was forced to halt and lose his advantage. To the day of his death, he believed that but for this blunder of Ewell or Early the Confederates would have won a decisive victory in the first day's fight, and would have taken possession then of Cemetery Ridge and Great and Little Round-top, so that the subsequent fighting for their possession, so disastrous to his cause, would have been unnecessary.

Early was the evil genius which pursued Gor-

don. On three occasions Early prevented his accomplishment of great results. Gordon was cursed with a superior officer who was in every way his inferior, except in courage.

In the battle of the Wilderness, in 1864, Gordon's brigade again pierced the Federal right on both days of the battle, and gained great glory. Gordon insisted upon pressing his advantage by falling upon Sedgwick's right, which was unsupported. Early insisted that Burnside was in reserve to support Sedgwick, and forbade the assault. Thus matters remained for hours. Late in the day, General Lee arrived, and by his direction Gordon attacked, with remarkable success; but Early had delayed the assault so long that night came on before he could make his triumph complete.

It was Gordon's command thrown across the rear of the captured salient at the "bloody angle" in the Wilderness that repulsed Hancock, and by that splendid service he earned his commission as major-general.

In June, 1864, Early's command was sent by General Lee to repel Hunter's invasion of the Virginia Valley. Early reached Lynchburg with Gordon's division in time to save that city, and Hunter, whose command had become demoralized, retreated, and left the State by way of Buffalo Gap, near Salem. It was then that Early made his diversion down the valley in the direction of Washington. He whipped Gen. Lew Wallace at Monocacy and pressed on to the vicinity of Washington. Early was forced back from Washington to the vicinity of Winchester, where he was defeated by Sheridan, and fell back to Cedar Creek. No man can read Gordon's account of the plan and execution of the battle of Cedar Creek, and the manner in which the whole fruits of that brilliant victory were thrown away and more than destroyed by the subsequent disaster, without wondering that General Early should have been intrusted with such responsibilities. Gordon planned the initial assault, and made it. It was brilliantly successful, and the enemy was driven from the field and Gordon implored Early to follow up his ad-

vantage; but Early was satisfied, and did nothing. He allowed Sheridan to arrive upon the scene, rally his troops, return to the attack, and almost annihilate the Confederate forces.

After this humiliating defeat, Gordon returned to Lee's army. His assault upon Grant's lines at Fort Stedman, in March, 1865, was his last and most brilliant service. At Petersburg, he broke the enemy's lines, as he promised to do, but Lee's army was then too depleted to support the movement or retain the advantage. Gordon was forced from the breach, and a few days later Petersburg was evacuated.

On the retreat, General Gordon held his command well together, and was actually engaged when the flag of truce went up at Appomattox.

After the war, his State made him Senator and governor, in both of which positions he maintained the high reputation gained in the army; but this article, already too long, will not treat of his political career.

For some years prior to his death, he lectured in many cities. The story of his Confederate career, modestly told and full of thrilling incidents, never failed to attract large audiences, North and South.

General Gordon aroused the pride and retained the love of all ex-Confederates as few Confederate commanders have done. He seems to have incurred less of personal antagonism, and his part in the war provoked less adverse criticism than that of any of his associates. The feeling toward him in the North, since the subsidence of war passions, may be truly described as one of kindly admiration.

No human being, friend or foe, can fail to realize, after a study of his life, that throughout his whole military career he believed he was right and did his best, and that he accepted the result without malice.

He was a born soldier. His success was achieved by inborn military prowess, uneducated, save in the school of experience, in which the pupil became a master. His heart was one in which love was perfect, so fear was driven out from it.



THREE MEETINGS AT NEW ORLEANS.

I.—THE AMERICAN ECONOMIC ASSOCIATION.

BY JOHN R. COMMONS.

THE selection of New Orleans for the meeting-place of the American Economic Association, in December last, naturally followed from the interest in practical affairs which characterizes this scientific association. At many of its sessions, especially in recent years, business men, labor leaders, and other men of affairs have been invited to take part and lead the discussions on subjects of which they are a part. Among such men have been Mr. James B. Dill, the New Jersey corporation lawyer and "trust" organizer; President W. H. Baldwin, of the Long Island Railway; Mr. W. H. Pfahler, of the Stone Founders' Defense Association and the National Founders; Mr. Herman Justi, commissioner of the Illinois coal operators; Mr. Henry White, secretary of the United Garment Workers, and many others. At the New Orleans meeting, Southern agricultural and industrial problems were presented by the president of the Rice Association of America, by presidents of agricultural and mechanical colleges, the heads of experiment stations, and by men like D. A. Tompkins, the leader of the new industrial South.

The New Orleans meeting, held in the closing week of 1903, aroused more interest and furnished a more inviting field for that organized curiosity which we call science than any other of the sixteen meetings of the association. The bulk of the members are from the Northern States, especially the Northeast. A special train was provided, and stops were made during the daytime at Richmond, Atlanta, Mobile, and Chattanooga, where the party was met by local committees of historical students and leading citizens. Of course, the negro problem was foremost in the questionings of the Northern economists, and with that the general industrial and labor progress of the South. Probably no statement of the Southern position on the negro question has ever been made more elegant and persuasive, and at the same time "flat-footed," than that of President Alderman, of Tulane University, in his address of welcome, when he said that the white race of the South had the kindest of feelings toward the negro and was eager to give him every opportunity except social equality and political control, and that the South-

PROFESSOR E. R. A. BELIGMAN.

(The retiring president of the American Economic Association.)

ern people, with their metaphysical idealism, would fight to the death for protection of the superior against the inferior race, as they had already fought for a lost cause. Every Southerner whom visiting members of the association met corroborated in one way or another these sentiments, and perhaps most surprising was the extreme position taken by Northerners living in the South, many of whom found in the visitors former friends and acquaintances. Of course, these views are not new, but to get them firsthand in the midst of the scenes where the problem is being worked out was a keen and real experience to the economic scientists.

While the Economic Association is mainly an organization of scientists and university and college professors of political economy, it needs but to mention a few of the several names of its more active spirits, and the occasions when they have been called upon for the exercise of their talents, to see that the association is not that academic

and theoretical body of intellects occasionally dismissed by the practical man in disparagement. Or, perhaps, the growing perplexity of American economic problems, with the rise of the money question, "trusts," State and local taxation, and colonial administration, has forced practical men to call upon these students for their expert help. At any rate, within the past five or ten years there has been a remarkable *rapprochement* of men of affairs and these "men of the chair." The retiring president of the association, Prof. E. R. A. Seligman, of Columbia University, with an international reputation as an authority on public finance, assisted in framing

Association made an exhaustive criticism of methods of earlier censuses, and its expert recommendations have been followed in almost every instance by the twelfth census, while several of the critics, such as Professor Wilcox, of Cornell, and Mr. S. N. D. North, were appointed to responsible positions in carrying out the work. Mr. North has subsequently been made director of the permanent census. Prof. J. W. Jenks, of Cornell, was the expert on "trusts" for the Industrial Commission, made a report to the War Department on colonial labor and economic problems, and is now serving on the American Monetary Commission, which is endeavoring to reach agreements with American, European, and Asiatic countries on the silver question. Our colonial ventures have called to the front Prof. Carl C. Plehn, of the University of California, for work in Philippine finances; Prof. J. H. Hollander, of Johns Hopkins, and W. F. Willoughby as treasurers of Porto Rico, Dr. Max West as assistant treasurer, and Prof. S. McC. Lindsay, of the University of Pennsylvania, as superintendent of education in Porto Rico. The Isthmian Canal Commission included Prof. Emory R. Johnson, of the University of Pennsylvania, as transportation expert. Other members of the Economic Association in public life are Carroll D. Wright, United States Commissioner of Labor; Prof. Edward W. Bemis, formerly of Chicago University and now superintendent of water works in Cleveland, Ohio, and Davis R. Dewey, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, in charge of census investigations, and frequently appointed on commissions of inquiry in Massachusetts. The public departments at Washington have an increasing number of trained economists of the younger generation, all members of the association, among whom may be mentioned Mr. George K. Holmes, of the Department of Agriculture, and Prof. E. Dana Durand, formerly of Leland Stanford, Junior, University and now of the Department of Commerce and Labor. It is to Professor Durand, as its secretary, that credit is due for the expert assistance which aided the Industrial Commission in bringing out its monumental report, after having struggled in vain for a year with a political appointee as secretary. These are a few of the names that could be mentioned to show the increasing influence of the American Economic Association on the administrative side of public affairs. With the growth of a permanent civil-service tenure and a higher appreciation of expert ability, and with greater critical ability on the part of the public, the field of public influence of this association is undoubtedly widening.

PROFESSOR F. W. TAUSSIG.

(The new president of the American Economic Association.)

the franchise-tax law of New York, and the new president, Prof. F. W. Taussig, of Harvard University, assisted commercial and banking associations during the silver controversy. A former president, Prof. Henry C. Adams, of Michigan University, has been statistician of the Interstate Commerce Commission since its organization; and another ex-president, Prof. Richard T. Ely, of Wisconsin State University, has acted on the Maryland and Wisconsin tax commissions, and in connection with irrigation investigations of the Department of Agriculture.

Prior to the census of 1900, the Economic

II.—THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION IN THE SOUTH.

BY DAVID Y. THOMAS.

widely distributed territory ; the papers read and the discussions were of more than usual interest, and the visiting members expressed themselves as highly gratified with the reception accorded them and pleased with the outlook for the work in the South. The success of the meeting was largely due to the active zeal of the members of the Louisiana Historical Society, who spared no pains in furthering that end. The press of New Orleans also deserves high praise for the liberal space granted in its columns with which to reach the general public. The popular interest in the meeting was all the greater as the "psychological moment" was hit upon in the general tenor of the papers presented, and it is hoped that this was the means of stimulating a permanent interest in such matters. The first session was devoted entirely to papers on the Louisiana Purchase. Only one session, aside from the joint meetings with the American Economic Association, was held at which some phase of Southern history was not presented, and this one was devoted entirely to European history.

PROFESSOR GOLDWIN SMITH.

(The new president of the American Historical Association.)

MORE than a year ago, the writer endeavored to tell the readers of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* something of what was being done in the South to preserve and publish the historical material of that section. At that time, an effort was being made to get the American Historical Association to hold one of its annual meetings in the South, for the double purpose of increasing the knowledge of the Northern members with regard to what was being done in the South and of arousing more interest in historical matters among the people below the Potomac and Ohio rivers. The effort was successful ; and, by a happy stroke of genius, New Orleans, the most cosmopolitan of Southern cities, was chosen as the place of meeting, and the time was only a few days subsequent to the centenary of one of the most important events in our history,—the transfer of Louisiana from France to the United States.

It is gratifying to report that the meeting was a highly successful one from every point of view. The attendance was large, and from a

MR. HENRY CHARLES LEA.

(The retiring president of the American Historical Association.)

The third session was devoted to a conference on the study and teaching of history in the South. This question was discussed by representatives from one Northern and six Southern States.

The discussion of conditions as they exist today was participated in by Prof. William E. Todd, Alcee Fortier, Lilian W. Johnson, F. L.

Riley, and the writer, from the South, and Prof. J. F. Jameson, from the North. A noteworthy feature was the frankness with which unfavorable conditions were pointed out. Perhaps the gloomiest reports came from Virginia and Arkansas, but when sifted to the bottom it is not likely that the conditions there will be found much worse than in some other States. In general, the work in the country schools was found to be far from satisfactory. This, however, might be said of almost every branch of study. In the urban schools, the conditions are more hopeful. In some cases, American history is continued in the high school, where two, sometimes three, years of foreign history are required. A good

many of our high schools have library facilities, and occasionally make use of sources.

On the whole, the outlook is encouraging. History has gained rapidly in our colleges, is making headway in the common schools, and as a natural consequence will become a matter of more general interest with the public. There is ample ground for the hope that at no distant day our public men will be as thorough students of history and political science as were their forebears of *ante bellum* days. When this condition obtains, they will be able again to take their seats at the council board of the nation with the full assurance that their voices will be heard.

III.—AN AMERICAN POLITICAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION.

BY SAMUEL E. SPARLING.

ABOUT one year ago, a number of persons met in the city of Washington for the purpose of discussing the advisability of organizing an association for the systematic study of comparative legislation. Upon a canvass of the field, it was the feeling that the scope of the organization could be so widened as to include all of the departments of political science. In order to canvass the field more thoroughly, as well as to take the necessary steps to perfect an organization, if it were found advisable, a committee of fifteen was appointed, with Prof. J. W. Jenks, of Cornell University, as chairman.

This committee met in New York City, together with representatives of the American Economic and the American Historical associations, for the purpose of discussing still further the advisability of perfecting a political science association. As a result of this meeting, an extensive correspondence was carried on with persons in public and professional life, for the purpose of ascertaining their views with reference to the organization of a third society. The results obtained from this correspondence indicated to the committee the very general desire for such an association.

A summary of the work of this committee and the arguments for the organization of the new association were presented at the recent New Orleans meetings of the Historical and Economic associations by the vice-chairman, Prof. W. W. Willoughby, of Johns Hopkins University. The investigation of this committee showed that there was a strong desire upon the part of the teachers of political science in the various high schools, colleges, and universi-

ties for the organization of an association which would provide for them a common center of activity. This was likewise the feeling of a large number of public men whose views were solicited. The controlling reason was found, doubtless, in the fact that there exists a large field uncultivated by the two older associations. It appeared that they had devoted little attention to the fields of theoretical and practical politics. If these subjects found a place upon their programmes, it was only in so far as they were primarily of interest to the economist and the historian.

The fields of public law, theoretical politics, legislation, and administration received only a passing notice, if any, on the part of these two older associations, and the increased interest in political problems seemed to warrant a more adequate consideration than these associations were able to devote to them.

These are some of the more important reasons for the creation of the Political Science Association. The object, in brief, was to create a center of interest for all persons who are primarily interested in political questions. The continued growth and the valuable services rendered by the other societies in their respective fields encouraged the committee to advise a similar organization for the promotion of the study of political science.

Upon the presentation of these arguments, it seemed advisable to perfect at once the organization of the association, which was done by the adoption of a constitution and the election of officers. The new society is to be known as the American Political Science Association, and has

for its object and purpose the encouragement of the study of public law, diplomacy, politics, and administration. The society is organized on lines similar to those of the two older societies. The officers of the association are as follows :

President, Prof. Frank Goodnow, Columbia University; first vice-president, President Woodrow Wilson, Princeton University; second vice-president, Prof. Paul S. Reinsch, University of Wisconsin; third vice-president, Hon. Simeon E. Baldwin, Yale University; secretary and treasurer, Prof. W. W. Willoughby, Johns Hopkins University. Executive committee—Hon. Andrew D. White, Ithaca, N. Y.; Prof. Jesse Macy, Iowa College; Hon. Herbert Putnam, librarian of Congressional Library; Dr. Albert Shaw, editor of the *Review of Reviews*; Prof. H. P. Judson, University of Chicago; Prof. Bernard Moses, University of California; Prof. J. A. Fairlie, University of Michigan; Prof. W. A. Schaper, University of Minnesota; Prof. C. H. Huberich, University of Texas; and Prof. L. S. Rowe, University of Pennsylvania.

A majority of the executive committee being present at New Orleans, a session was called for organization of the work of the association for the coming year. The most important work mapped out by the executive committee was the appointment of a number of special committees for the purpose of outlining a definite programme in the various departments of political science. The object and purpose of these committees will be sufficiently obvious by merely enumerating them. The more important ones, with their chairmen, are as follows :

International Law and Diplomacy, Prof. J. B. Moore, Columbia University; Constitutional Law, Prof. Isidor Loeb, University of Missouri; Comparative Legislation, Dr. R. H. Whitten, librarian New York State Library, Albany, N. Y.; Political Theory, Prof. W. A. Dunning, Columbia University; Administration, Prof. W. A. Schaper, University of Minnesota; Politics, Prof. Paul S. Reinsch, University of Wisconsin; Comparative Jurisprudence, Prof. Monroe Smith, Columbia University.

It will be noted that the officers and heads of working committees in the new organization, as in the case of the Economic Association, are men eminent in authorship and in various lines of political activity.

Obviously, the principal mission of the new association, during the coming year, is to interest as many persons as possible in its work.

PROFESSOR FRANK GOODNOW.

(The president of the American Political Science Association.)

For this purpose, plans were developed and started by the executive committee. It is confidently expected that the society will receive enthusiastic support from business, public, and professional men who are interested in civic affairs. The large attendance at New Orleans gave the organization a creditable membership with which to begin its work. The fees of the society were fixed at \$3. to be paid annually, or a life membership at \$50.

It was the unanimous sentiment of the executive committee that the success of the association would be furthered by close union with the two older societies, particularly respecting the programme, the time and the place of meeting. The new association is desirous of giving all the assistance in its power to further the common interests of the three associations. It was felt that the objects and purposes of each of the societies are essentially one, and that their success is, in large measure, dependent upon the development of some scheme of federation which will enable them to work in harmony in those matters of mutual interest.



LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

AMERICA AND JAPAN: AN ECONOMIC ALLIANCE.

FROM Japan, just at the present juncture of affairs in the far East, there comes an interesting proposition to the United States. This proposition, it is true, is wholly informal and lacks official sanction, but there is reason to believe that it embodies the desires of an influential section of Japanese public opinion. It finds expression in an article contributed by Baron Kentaro Kaneko, formerly minister of state for agriculture and commerce, to the *International Quarterly*. This writer argues that closer trade relations between his country and the United States are necessary to the latter as a step to the extension of our commercial influence in China. To that end, he urges that our policy should be to form an alliance,—not with the government of Japan, but with the people. He says:

"It is an indisputable fact that both the people and the government of the United States have continually shown the warmest feeling toward Japan. The commerce between Japan and the United States has, within the last few years, increased beyond any comparison, and our American trade now occupies a foremost position in the report of the foreign trade of the empire. The present state of trade with America will not only continue in the future, but will increase as the years roll on, consequently American capital will in the future gradually be invested in Japanese industry, as well as in various other enterprises, such as the American Tobacco Company's amalgamation with the Murai Brothers' Company of Kyoto, and the recent undertaking of the American Standard Oil Company in the oil industry of Yechigo.

"Let the Japanese, with the advantage of racial and linguistic similarity, clear the way for the American people in their Chinese enterprises, and, on the other hand, let the Americans with their business experience and ample capital, reinforce the Japanese in their business in China. Therefore it will not be surprising if an economic alliance is made before long by the people of the United States and Japan, because the Americans are now most anxious to extend their market in China, and they also know that they cannot do so if they disregard the importance of Japan in Chinese affairs. In this respect, they have already started, in the case of the Hankow Railway Company, recently incorporated by the Americans in China, when they employed ten

Japanese engineers as sub-coöperators under the supervision of American engineers. As the Americans are actuated by such an idea, it is important for the Japanese to take a similar step to coöperate with the Americans, and thereby Japan will be benefited in her Chinese commerce with the support of America. Thus the people of the two countries might work hand in hand on the Asiatic continent, and reap all the harvests of Chinese trade by their mutual support and reciprocal assistance. The Anglo-Japanese Alliance, concluded in 1902, is highly important in securing the peace in the East, but in order to develop the world's commerce in China, an economic alliance between the people of Japan and the United States is far more important, and will be regarded by the world at large as a prime factor in the open-door policy in China."

THE OCCUPATION OF PEKING IN 1900.

PECULIARLY interesting at this time, when Russia is threatening to occupy Peking if China does not behave, is the account of the entrance of the allies into the Chinese capital in August, 1900, contributed to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* (Paris) by Gen. H. Frey, who commanded the French contingent in that expedition, and who will soon issue his story in book form. The first chapter was considered in this review in September, 1903. He describes, in a carefully written, detailed way, the entire expedition, with suggestive illuminative comments on the conduct of the troops of the different nations, the behavior of the Chinese, and the appearance of the city. The Chinese army, he informs us was in a very bad condition,— "disordered without a commander, more or less without any direction, with no plan of defense, totally lacking in initiative. Instead of harassing the allied troops on the march, they fought among themselves in the outskirts of their capital."

JAPANESE AND RUSSIANS ENTER FIRST.

The Japanese and Russians were the first to enter the Chinese capital. General Frey gives the line of march of each contingent, and recounts its progress. The Japanese, he says, were the first to demand to be led by the open road into Peking, not, he thinks, for reasons of glory only.

"The motive which influenced these soldiers of the Isle of the Rising Sun should not be attributed exclusively (as has been written) to desire to secure for themselves the task most difficult,

and, therefore, most glorious, but also,—a glance at the plan of Peking will show this,—to the material advantage of taking one of these gates (of the Tartar City), as this would give them direct and immediate access to the quarters where was to be found the greatest riches of the Tartar City and lead them directly to the gates of the imperial palace."

He admits, however, that they acquitted themselves nobly.

When the Russian general, Linéwitch, heard that the Japanese intended to march to the attack before the day set for the combined movement of the allies, he sent General Wassilewsky to enter through the Toun-g-Pien-men gate. This command penetrated into the Chinese capital two hours before the arrival of the Japanese.

OUTRAGES BY EUROPEAN TROOPS.

The French general admits that there was massacre, pillage, and outrage. The blame for this, he says, must be laid on the native troops under the command of the allies. The European officers "never once failed in their duty, by their general attitude, by their moderation, by their orders repeatedly given that private property be respected, and by asking for clemency and generosity to the vanquished." In these respects, the French officers "have proved that they possess conscience and high moral sense."

General Frey declares that both the Russian and the American commanders kept a sharp lookout lest the Japanese or the French should make an earlier attack than was agreed upon by the conference of allied generals. He mentions having been twice compelled to question General Chaffee as to the latter's intentions, the American commander replying that he would abide strictly by the letter of the agreement. The actual entrance of the French column into the Chinese city is described by General Frey, in the words of Captain Bobo, one of his officers of ordnance, who kept a diary.

HOW THE CITY LOOKED.

"The column marched with care, for we could not be sure at what moment the roofs of the houses along the streets would storm down upon us with a hail of bullets. A good part of the road traversed looked more like a plowed field than a city; from time to time a group of houses, in the midst of the trees, made us realize that we were not in the open country; no trace of the detachments which had preceded us. Thus the little troop advanced, in silence, keeping along the same road, which seemed without end. Speaking and smoking were forbidden; the men received orders to keep their hands

upon their bayonets and canteens, to prevent all noise. Finally the road widened out; we entered one of the great streets of the city. This street seemed deserted; everything was sullen and dismal; the silence of death weighed down upon each quarter of the city; the windows and doors of all the houses were closed. On we pressed, without waiting to find out whether they were occupied or not; we must reach the legations at the earliest possible moment. It is just about midnight. The doors of the buildings on either side of the column,—mostly shops and eating-houses,—remain tightly closed. Yet, from without one can hear, for the moment, through the partitions, various noises,—the moving of furniture, words exchanged in low voices, the suppressed cough of some old person or invalid, and other signs that all the houses are occupied. And, in truth, if the eye could penetrate to the interior, it would see entire families, trembling, helpless from fear, prostrate before the altar with which every house is dignified. As pious Christian mothers offer the tapers to the Virgin, entreating her to protect their infants in peril, so these poor wretches burn their little sticks of incense, imploring the titular gods of their ancestors, those genii in place of Buddha himself, asking their almighty protection. Most of them curse, from the bottom of their hearts, the Boxers, the cause of their miseries, and to whom, no doubt, they have already paid tribute, if one can judge by the number of burned houses along the route. . . . Some, to propitiate the conquerors, lose no time in running out of their hiding-places to offer cigarettes and glasses of their best tea to the soldiers."

General Frey ridicules the idea that the Europeans at the beleaguered legations were in need. They had plenty of provisions and other supplies of various kinds, he declares.

AMERICA, RUSSIA, AND THE JEWISH QUESTION.

THE future of the Russian Jew, considered as an international problem, is discussed by Mr. Arnold White, the English writer, in the January number of the *North American Review*. Mr. White has been interested in the subject for many years, and by means of personal interviews has acquainted himself with the views of the late Baron Hirsch and of the Russian Procurator of the Holy Synod, M. Pobiedonostseff. Relying for financial support, to a great extent, on the millions which make up the Hirsch colonization fund, Mr. White has evolved a plan of procedure which he thinks should be followed by the Anglo-Saxon nations in conjunction with Russia, for it is to them that this "white man's burden"

is committed. The main principles of his scheme he summarizes as follows :

"1. England and America must examine the question anew, so as to realize that the Russians understand their position as regards the Jews, not as inspired by futile brutality, but as dic-

shall be invited to suspend their generosity to rich nations until the congestion of the Jewish Pale is relieved, and the Jewish problem solved, by the settlement of their coreligionists in territory of adequate size ;

"(c) of contributions from Christians of all nations, who believe that the race to which their founder belonged has a positive and primary claim on their charity and their good-will.

"All that is asked for to-day is the acceptance of the principle, that civilization is dishonored by the present state of the Jewish question, and that before a solution is feasible the three great nations must understand the problem. I have reason for saying that the ministers of the Czar would not summarily reject proposals for a dispassionate examination of the Jewish question, if these proposals are made in such a way as to promise the attainment of the object aimed at,—namely, the solution of the Jewish question."

OUR INTERNATIONAL RESPONSIBILITY.

Mr. White closes his article with an appeal to the Anglo-Saxon sense of duty :

"Russians, like Americans, are proud. Gusts of emotion sweep through the land. Threaten Russia, or denounce her government, and the door of conviction is closed with a clang. But Russia has other moods. She is not wholly represented by M. Pobiedonosteff. I have no authority for saying so, but the impression I have gained from recent conversations with Russian ministers is, rightly or wrongly, that the Pobiedonosteff methods are no longer found satisfactory. The only influence that can prolong them is the denunciation of the American and British press.

"If, on the other hand, the great republic and Great Britain were to hold out their hands to Russia, and say, 'Let us see what we can do together to solve this terrible problem of Jewish misery,' I have reason to believe that Russia would hold out her hand, and, notwithstanding Manchuria, Persia, Central Asia, India, and the open door, that the powers might act together in the discovery of a remedy which shall at least alleviate, if it does not cure, the evils of which we are conscious.

"The amelioration of the lot of the Jews throughout the world is no fit subject for political ambition. It is the duty of every Christian and of every non-Christian to put aside causes of difference, and to join hands with the object of ending the journeyings of the wandering Jew."

Mr. White has embodied his views in a memorial which he has addressed to the governments of Russia, the United States, and Great Britain, looking to the calling of a conference.

M. POBIEDONOSTEFF.

(Procurator of the Russian Holy Synod.)

tated by the first law of nature, self-preservation, and by the duty of rulers toward the majority of their subjects.

"2. The Jewish question is insoluble by any single nation. Even Russia is impotent if she acts alone.

"3. The Jewish question is a world problem, and therefore international in its essence.

"4. To solve the Jewish problem a conference between Russia and the Anglo-Saxon powers is essential, in order that the problem as it affects each power may be understood by all the parties concerned before its solution is attempted.

"5. The Russo-Anglo-American conference should adopt the principle that Russia should provide territory and that the other powers should find capital for the establishment of the redundant Jewish population now multiplying in the Pale, to their own misery, and the certainty of eventual bloodshed and revolution.

"6. The necessary capital should consist :

"(a) of the funds of the Jewish Colonization Association as a nucleus ;

"(b) of the contributions of wealthy Jews, who

THE PROFIT FROM THE PANAMA CANAL.

THE Panama Canal will cost the United States \$200,000,000. Will the waterway benefit the commerce and industries of our country, or strengthen the efficiency of our navy, or "otherwise increase the ability of the United States to prevail in the coming competition among the nations of the world for political and economic leadership?" Dr. Emory R. Johnson, of the Isthmian Canal Commission, professor of transportation and commerce in the University of Pennsylvania, expert on transportation for the United States Industrial Commission, editor of the "Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science," and author of "Inland Waterways" and "American Railway Transportation," contributes to *Everybody's Magazine* for February an article which answers this question in the affirmative. The distances which will be saved by the canal he puts graphically thus:

DISTANCES SAVED BY THE CANAL.

"From New York to San Francisco by the Straits of Magellan, the present route for steamers, the distance is 13,714 nautical miles, and from New Orleans to San Francisco 14,114 miles. By way of the Panama Canal, the distance from New York will be 5,299 miles, and from New Orleans 4,698 miles, the route from New York being shortened 8,415 miles, and from New Orleans 9,416 miles. From New York to the principal nitrate of soda port of Chile, Iquique—the city having the heaviest export tonnage of any place on the west coast of South America—the present steamer route is 9,221 nautical miles long; from Hamburg, the distance is 10,041 miles; whereas by the Panama Canal the figures for New York are 4,021 (a saving of 5,200 miles), and from Hamburg 7,189 (a gain of 2,852 miles). From San Francisco via Callao, the Straits of Magellan, and Pernambuco to Liverpool is 14,084 marine miles; via Panama, the distance is 8,038 miles—6,046 miles less. The Panama Canal will bring New York nearly 4,000 miles nearer Sydney, Australia, and about 6,000 miles closer to Wellington, in New Zealand."

A survey of typical industries in the eastern, southern, central, and western sections of the United States is given by Dr. Johnson to fix the relations of the canal to American economic development.

HOW AMERICAN INDUSTRY WILL PROFIT.

"The northeastern section of the United States has already become a great manufacturing region. A larger outlet for its textile and iron

and steel products, and for the many other manufactures now being exported, and the ability to secure the foods, chemicals, ores, fibers, and woods obtainable only from Pacific countries, are yearly becoming more imperative. . . . When a Brooklyn firm informs us that it sends over half a million dollars' worth of machinery annually to the Hawaiian Islands, or a Philadelphia company reports the exportation of 156 locomotives—four full vessel-loads—to China and Siberia in a little over two calendar years, and a Baltimore corporation tells of a single order for 30,000 tons of steel rails for Australia, and of another order for 70,000 tons of rails for the Trans-Siberian Railway, we can understand in a more concrete way the relation of the Pacific trade—and of the Isthmian canal that will facilitate that commerce—to the industrial progress of the northeastern part of the United States.

"Throughout American history, the exports from the Southern States, the cotton, tobacco, timber, and naval stores, have constituted a large part of the tonnage of our foreign commerce; and recently phosphate, coal, iron and steel, and general manufactures have made an important addition to the out-bound trade of that section. The products of the South find their foreign markets mainly in Europe, but they are increasingly in demand in Pacific countries, from which they are largely excluded by costs of transportation. The canal will give the cotton industries of the South a more profitable trade in the Japanese market, where there is a keen competition with cotton from East India and China. The new waterway will also aid in the exportation of cotton manufactures to western South America, Asia, and Oceania, where Great Britain and Germany now control the trade. . . ."

"The canal will open up a large market for Southern coal, lumber, naval stores, and phosphate. The coal will be required by the vessels using the canal, and in the coaling stations of the eastern part of the Pacific Ocean in tropical and south temperate latitudes, and also for industrial purposes along the west coast of Central and South America.

"The Southern States now send large quantities of lumber to the eastern coast of South America, and when the canal has been opened an equally important trade with the west side of the continent will follow. The phosphate fertilizers of Florida, South Carolina, and Tennessee will be sent to southern California, western Mexico, Hawaii, Japan, and other countries where agriculture is carried on extensively by means of irrigation.

"The twelve States of the upper Mississippi

Valley, to which is applied the term central West, comprise one-fourth the area of the United States and one-third of the population. The region is rich in coal, iron, and timber, and is the greatest grain-producing area of the world. . . . Although this section of the United States is from 500 to 1,500 miles from the seaboard, its manufactures of agricultural and mining machinery, carriages, stoves, shoes, and many other articles are being exported to all parts of the world. As regards manufacturing costs, the central West can compete with any part of the world; the extent of its foreign trade is primarily a question of transportation costs, and those will unquestionably be lessened for a large part of both the export and import business of the region.

"The typical products of the Pacific Slope are wheat, barley, beet sugar and hops, lumber and shingles, fruit and vegetables of many kinds, cattle hides and wool, and the articles obtained from the extensive river and marine fisheries,—that is to say, the west coast States produce foods and the materials of industry. Wheat flour, lumber, and canned goods are now shipped across the Pacific to Oceania and the Orient, but the largest market for the west coast products is in Europe, and particularly in the manufacturing sections of the eastern half of the United States. In spite of the great economies that have been made during the past two decades in the costs of moving freight by rail, the volume of bulky commodities that can be hauled with profit over high mountains to markets from 2,000 to 3,000 miles distant is small."

The tonnage of the maritime commerce of the United States that would, no doubt, have used the canal had it been in existence in 1899 was 3,435,887 cargo tons, comprising commodities valued at \$125,716,558. The total tonnage of the trade between European countries and western, South and Central America, British Columbia, and Hawaii which would have used the canal in that year amounts to a total of 6,702,541 tons. These figures refer to the commerce of the past only. The new Panama Canal Company has made a study of the freight passing through the canal and over the railroad, and the estimate is that in 1914—the year in which the canal is expected to be open for traffic—7,000,000 tons net register will pass through.

A BENEFIT TO THE RAILROADS.

Dr. Johnson believes that "those who really study the question become convinced that the canal will be of real, decided benefit to the transcontinental railroads." He says:

"The canal will be a decided benefit to the

railroads. In the beginning of their existence, these railroads depended almost entirely upon their through traffic; but their chief aim throughout their history has been to increase the local business, which is always more profitable than the through traffic; and, although the great stretch of country crossed by them is still in the infancy of its industrial development, the local traffic of some, if not all, of the Pacific roads has already become of chief importance. A vice-president of one of the Pacific railway systems recently said that since 1893 'the increase in business of the transcontinental lines has not come from the seaports, but from the development of the intermediate country.' The canal can certainly in no wise check the growth of this local traffic.

"If this be true, the proximate effect of the Isthmian canal in compelling a reduction and readjustment of the rates on the share of the transcontinental railway business that will be subject to the competition of the new water route will be more than offset by the ultimate and not distant expansion of the through and local traffic that must necessarily be handled by rail. It seems probable that the increase in the population of the country, and the growth in our home and foreign trade, will early demonstrate the need of the transportation service of both the canal and the railroads."

THE MARCH INTO THIBET.

WHAT are the real causes of the dramatic action of the British Government in invading Thibet at the head of an armed force? This question, with many jibes at the ignorance of the rest of his fellow-creatures, Mr. Alexander Ular attempts to answer in the current number of the *Contemporary Review*.

The explanation is simple. Mr. Ular's theory is that Asiatic fraud must be met by Asiatic fraud. Russia has recognized this, and gained the upper hand in Thibet thereby; Lord Curzon has now recognized it, and by Asiatic fraud has succeeded in destroying Russia's advantage.

"Lord Curzon,—I venture to say it without any ironical intention,—is the most Asiatic gentleman who has ever been intrusted with the government of England's Asiatic empire. He has the courage deliberately to oppose the moral tendencies which reign in these times in Europe, and to employ against the awful expansion of Russian influence throughout Asia the very means that have secured to Russia her brilliant successes."

The broken-treaty allegation, says Mr. Ular, is all humbug. The Dalai-Lama never regarded

the Sikkim treaty as binding, and he reproached the Chinese court for tolerating it. It was as the result of Chinese complaisance in regard to this treaty that in 1900 the Grand Lama deliberately transferred his allegiance to the Czar, who thereupon became "Lord and Guardian of the Gifts of Faith" and practically head of the Buddhist religion. But Russia blundered, and, as the result, Mr. Ular foresees the Grand Lama transferring his allegiance to the Emperor of India. This is the result of having a viceroy who does not scruple to employ Asiatic methods.

"The Lassa authorities conferred this supreme Buddhist honor on the Czar on the implicit condition that Russia would, with more success than China, defend the territorial integrity and administrative independence of Thibet. When they have learned—to their heavy cost—that these things cannot possibly be guaranteed at the present time by Russia, they will probably adopt toward their new 'Lord of Faith' the same line of conduct that has turned out to the extreme disadvantage of their former secular protector, the Manchu Emperor of China."

RUSSIA'S BLUNDER.

According to Mr. Ular, Russia's blunder,—a blunder by which she has lost forever the allegiance of the Grand Lama,—was in not officially announcing her preponderance at Lassa and declaring Thibet a sort of Afghanistan. She gained her hegemony by secret devices, but she maintained her secrecy too long. Instead of asserting her exclusive rights in the country, she kept professing to have no interests there, and the result is that Lord Curzon, basing his action on Russia's official statements, will be able to deal with Thibet as he likes.

"If the Dalai-Lama is treated as an enemy of India, all these hopes will vanish. India may show him her power, but not at his own expense. The simple fact of invading, on a peaceful mission for treaty-revision, the boundaries guaranteed, or supposed to be guaranteed, by the White Czar, will suffice. But India must carefully abstain from committing warlike acts, from annexing or occupying territory, or from enforcing clauses which cannot be accepted unless under threat of brute force. The Thibetan clergy live on one essential privilege, which is more precious to them—and, unfortunately, more prejudicial to India—than even the political quasi-independence or integrity of the country; and this is a kind of monopoly of commerce conceded to them by the Chinese Emperor K'ang-hsi. This they cannot dispense with. And it ought to be the first duty of the Indian commissioners to search carefully into the ancient treaty clauses, and to abandon

everything that may cause even the slightest prejudice to the clergy. Such a concession would be paid for a thousandfold by winning over the Lassa court to India; and India, after the failure of China and Russia, is the natural protector of that great religious organization which twenty-five centuries ago spread over the East from the Ganges valley."

If these conditions are observed, "the Thibetan expedition is likely to prove—I cannot but conclude—that Lord Curzon has accomplished a masterpiece of Asiatic policy. He has obliged Russia, without striking a blow, to avow tacitly her impotence to maintain her present standard of power. Russian expansion in Asia is stopped."

Such are the advantages of having a genuine Asiatic to deal with Asiatic peoples.

No Danger from Russia.

Dr. Dillon devotes the greater part of his "Foreign Affairs" in the *Contemporary Review* to the Thibetan question, but he takes a more ordinary point of view, and evidently has never suspected the Asiatic genius that lies behind Lord Curzon's mere European face. He points out that there is absolutely no military danger to be apprehended from the Russian side of Thibet; a Russian army could not get to Lassa unless it marched *via* Calcutta and the Himalayan passes, or through China along the valleys of the Hoang-Ho and Wei-Ho, neither of which projects is feasible. There are no routes to the inhabited parts of Thibet from the north.

THIBET'S SACRED CAPITAL.

Dr. Dillon describes the mysterious city of Lassa as follows:

"Lassa, the city of white houses, golden-domed monasteries, and lofty towers,—the Rome of northern Buddhism,—is situated on a tributary of the Sanpo, the great river of Thibet, which afterward becomes the Brahmaputra. It has some fifteen thousand inhabitants who marry and give in marriage, and about eighteen thousand monks who are strictly forbidden to do either. Thither a never-ending stream of pious pilgrims flows from year's end to year's end, journeying from China, Korea, the wild wastes of Mongolia, and the desolate fastnesses of the Himalaya and the Kuen-Lun. Gold, precious stones, and costly stuffs are brought by these devoted worshipers and laid upon the steps of the throne, on the triple-crested Potala Hill, before the dread incarnation, so that the treasures already hoarded up there are reported to be priceless. The Dalai-Lama himself cannot be said to enjoy them, for he is a lad who, in the interests of religion and morality, is seldom al-

lowed to live longer than eighteen years in this vale of tears, so that he must often feel a desire to be born again at the age of nineteen or twenty with sufficient firmness of character to relieve his regents of the responsibility of governing in his name.

BRITISH RELATIONS WITH FRANCE.

THE eminent economist and political writer, Leroy-Beaulieu, has a careful and brilliant analysis of the economic relations of France and England in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. He notes the enormous improvement which has taken place in the Anglo-French relations, and he asks whether it will last. Ought it to be considered as merely a temporary improvement, due to the diplomatic ability of M. Cambon joined to the sincere love of peace entertained by King Edward, or should it be considered as the effect of a real, deep evolution, which has already begun to modify the position of the two peoples in face of each other, and in face of the world? M. Leroy-Beaulieu is inclined to take the optimistic view.

THE TREND OF BRITISH POLICY.

Since the sixteenth century, he says, British policy has aimed without ceasing at two objects,—(1) to conquer and keep an economic and maritime preponderance; (2) to prevent the establishment of a great power in the Netherlands. Spain, Holland, and France successively opposed the first of these designs, and England fought them down. The second aim was disputed by Spain in the sixteenth century, and by France from the seventeenth to the middle of the nineteenth century. But to-day, at the opening of the twentieth century, is it France that threatens the industry, the commerce, and the fleet of Britain? Does France threaten the Netherlands? Certainly not. It is Germany, whose emperor has said, "Our future is on the water," and it is pan-Germanic sentiment in Germany which covets the Netherlands.

ANGLO-FRENCH COLONIAL RIVALRY.

The only possible point of difference between France and England, as has been so often pointed out, lies in the colonial sphere. But even here M. Leroy-Beaulieu sees much encouragement. The South African war, he thinks, has taught the whole British nation the bitter lesson of what war costs, both in blood and in treasure, so that perhaps, as he says, the poor Boers will have been the ransom of the peace of the world. Moreover, he perceives a feeling in England that the empire is already quite big enough, and that it is a heavy burden to administer it. At the same

time, he admits that there are certain questions,—such as the French shore in Newfoundland, the possession of the New Hebrides, Siam, and Morocco,—the settlement of which will require the greatest care. On the other hand, everything points to Germany as the great enemy of England, and he quotes the stern refusal of the *Spectator* to accept the alliance offered by the late Professor Mommsen in the last article he ever wrote. The really encouraging thing about Anglo-French relations is that the points of difference which can be perceived do not in any single instance concern essentially the position of either country as a great power. On the other hand, the interests which tend to draw the two countries together are already strong, and are daily increasing in importance. There is no need to follow M. Leroy-Beaulieu through the imposing rows of figures which he gives in order to show that England is about the best customer that France has. He notes in particular that, on the whole, France sells to England the commodities which England either cannot or does not want to make for herself—therein differing very much from the German imports, which compete directly with British manufactures.

THE FUTURE OF SIAM AND INDO-CHINA.

THE steady progress of France northward from her Indo-Chinese possessions into the Celestial Empire is dependent, to a certain extent, on the certainty of her relations with Siam. In the first December number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, M. Pinon has a paper on the present and future relations of France and Siam. He outlines the difference between Franco-Siamese and Anglo-Siamese relations. He shows that the English in the Malay Peninsula only threaten quite outside dependencies of the Siamese kingdom,—that is to say, sultanates peopled by Malays who have neither the same religion nor the same customs. On the other hand, in the basin of the Mekong, which is the country whither Siamese expansion naturally tends, the force of circumstances has made rivals of the French and the Siamese. He urges that from the international point of view it is necessary to separate carefully the question of the Mekong, which ever since 1896 is purely a Franco-Siamese question, from the problem of the future Siam itself, which is more complicated than it seems to be at first. It is no longer merely a question of the rival influence at Bangkok of England and France, but—not to mention the Danes, who have established great interests in the country—there are the Germans, who of recent years have greatly developed their

trade with Siam, and have obtained concessions and railway contracts. Then, moreover, in addition to these Europeans, there is the competition of the Chinese themselves, who are gradually gathering into their own hands all the threads of the Bangkok trade. Last, but not least, there are the Japanese, who seek to play in Siam, as in China, their favorite part of educators of the yellow race. M. Pinon declares his belief that the center of human activity and civilization, hitherto concentrated around the Mediterranean, is being rapidly moved to the Pacific Ocean. In the future, when the consequences of this movement shall appear, it is then, he says, that France will appreciate all that she owes to the devoted men—notably Prince Henry of Orleans—who labored to give her an empire in Indo-China.

PORFIRIO DIAZ: SOLDIER AND STATESMAN.

“THE first of all living Americans”—with this laudatory phrase the Hon. John W. Foster characterizes President Diaz, of Mexico, in a paper contributed to the current number of the *International Quarterly*. Reviewing the political events of the hemisphere for the past fifty years, Mr. Foster finds that others, who have passed from the stage of action, have borne a more prominent part in public affairs, but that no one now living “has had such a varied and distinguished career, or accomplished as much for the good of his country and race as Porfirio Diaz, of Mexico.”

The public services of Diaz, as Mr. Foster points out, cover three epochs in Mexican history.

“In his early manhood, he took an active part in what is known as the ‘War of the Reform,’ the struggle of the liberal republicans against the clerical party, which resulted in the absolute separation of the Church and State and the establishment of complete religious freedom, in which course Mexico was the pioneer of the Latin-American states. He was a prominent leader in resisting the attempt of the Emperor of the French to overthrow republican government and establish a monarchy in America, and he came out of that great contest as its most brilliant soldier. His mature years have been devoted to rehabilitating his country after half a century of strife and disorder, and pointing out the way to the other Spanish-American republics of orderly government and prosperity.”

DIAZ AS A REVOLUTIONIST.

Without attempting to follow Mr. Foster's interesting account of his hero's earlier career, we select for quotation the story of an incident in the revolutionary uprisings of the early '70's

in which Diaz was the central figure, and which well illustrates certain traits in his character. Having announced that he would resist the re-election of President Lerdo by force of arms, Diaz, who claimed that he himself had been twice elected President and each time “counted out,” gathered a few partisans on the United States frontier, but was overwhelmed by the government forces.

“His resourceful character and daring were exhibited in the plan which he now resolved to carry out. He went to New Orleans and took passage on the mail steamer for Vera Cruz, disguised as a Cuban doctor, *en route* to his native state, where he expected to raise again the standard of revolt. The steamer touched first at the Mexican port of Tampico, where a number of government officials who knew him well took passage for Vera Cruz. Feeling sure that he would be recognized, he resolved to throw himself into the sea and swim ashore, notwithstanding the water was infested with sharks. The vessel lay about four miles from the coast, but he was a good swimmer, and boldly undertook the task. The cry of ‘man overboard’ soon brought a boat alongside of him, and he was taken back on to the steamer. He now felt sure his identity would be established, but he found a good friend in the purser of the vessel, who concealed him in his cabin, threw a life-preserver into the water, which was picked up, and the report given out that the Cuban doctor had made a second attempt and was drowned. Thus throwing the officers off guard, he reached Vera Cruz, and although the vessel was surrounded by a cordon of boats filled with government troops, he quietly went ashore disguised as a sailor, passed through the city and adjoining country held by the government, reaching Oaxaca in safety.

“Here, under better auspices, he set up the standard of revolt, his friends and partisans rallied about him, and in a few weeks he had organized and equipped an army able to cope with the regular forces of the government. After several encounters in that state with the government forces, he advanced to the tableland leading to the city of Mexico, and fought the decisive battle of Tecuac, November 16, 1876, defeating the most skillful of Lerdo's generals, which placed the capital at his mercy.”

HIS RECORD IN THE PRESIDENCY.

In this engagement of Tecuac, it is stated that the killed and wounded numbered 4,200. Lerdo and his advisers left the country, taking refuge in the United States. Diaz assumed the office of provisional President, ordered an election,

was chosen without opposition for the constitutional term, and has held the office, by successive elections, from that day to this. Mr. Foster sums up his administrative record as follows :

"He has maintained peace and public order ; he has given security to life and property ; brought order out of the confusion of official life ; kept the army faithful to the government and paid with regularity ; restored public credit from absolute bankruptcy and repudiation ; maintained peace with all nations ; largely increased the revenues ; materially reduced taxation ; abolished antiquated impediments to trade ; revived and enlarged commerce ; created a network of railways ; built up manufactures ; greatly developed mining and agriculture ; established a banking system and a safe and uniform currency ; multiplied the public-school system ; improved the condition of the laboring classes ; enforced religious liberty. When the fact is recalled that before he assumed the administration of affairs the country enjoyed few of these advantages, and those only in a limited degree, the extent and importance of his services may be better estimated."

THE TRADE AGREEMENT.

AN industrial practice of long standing is described by the comparatively new phrase, "trade agreement." The coal strike of 1902 and other recent developments in industrial conditions have served to accentuate the importance of this outcome of what is known as "collective bargaining." Commissioner Carroll D. Wright, writing on this subject in the *International Quarterly*, begins with a definition of the latter term.

"Collective bargaining takes place when a body of individuals, through its representatives, makes a contract, verbally or otherwise, with the representatives of another body of individuals,—that is, in industrial affairs, collective bargaining takes place when there is an agreement between the employers as a collection of men and the employees as another collection.

WHAT IS COLLECTIVE BARGAINING ?

"While the term is new, the practice is very old, at least as old as business corporations. A company organized to carry on a manufacturing business, or any other business which involves the employment of men, is composed of stockholders of large and small means. These stockholders are the owners of the business, but they are too numerous, as a rule, to conduct the business themselves. So they choose a committee to take care of their affairs. This com-

mittee is known usually as a board of directors ; but the board of directors is too large a body to manage specific affairs, and it chooses a president, or a treasurer, or a manager, to have immediate supervision of the business owned by the numerous stockholders. The business manager is the only man recognized by or known to those who deal with the corporation, and every time he, the representative of the representatives of the owners, makes a bargain for the purchase of material, or for the sale of goods, or for the employment of men, or makes any other contract necessary to the proper conduct of the business with which he is charged, he indulges in collective bargaining.

"When the employees of this corporation, who may number hundreds or perhaps thousands, wish to deal with the manager,—that is, with the corporation,—they choose a committee to represent them, because their numbers are too large for specific acts ; but when the committee of the employees undertakes to engage in collective bargaining by calling upon the manager of the corporation, it is the habit of the manager to inform the committee of the employees that he cannot deal with a committee, but must deal with the individual members of the body of employees, although he himself is exercising collective bargaining when he tells this to the committee. Sometimes, when this answer has been made to the committee representing the employees, and they have withdrawn, the manager has afterward found it necessary to deal with the committee, and when he has sent for them he has been informed,—and properly too, under the circumstances,—that the committee could not deal with him as the representative of the stockholders, but would deal with the individual stockholders themselves. Here the whole matter is reduced to an absurdity. It was absurd for the manager to take the position he did when he represented, in the concrete, collective bargaining, and it was absurd for the committee, except as a proper answer to the manager's absurdity, to say that they must deal with the individual stockholders.

HOW CORPORATIONS MAY DEAL WITH THEIR EMPLOYEES.

"Happily, this condition is passing away, and the representative of the stockholders recognizes the necessity of dealing with the representatives of the employees of the corporation in order to secure the most satisfactory results. The assertion of Mr. J. P. Morgan during the great steel strike of 1901 is that which is being accepted at the present time. He asserted that he was not hostile to organized labor ; that he looked

upon it with favor, to the extent that he preferred a well-organized and administered trade-union as the medium through which contracts for wages and other conditions of employment could be made, rather than the chaotic and unreliable results following arrangements with individual workmen.

"Great corporations engaged in production and in transportation are now recognizing this principle of collective bargaining as the true one, and are conforming to the logical result of such bargaining by entering into what are known as trade agreements, whereby all the conditions of labor involved are adjusted by well-drawn detailed agreements."

WHAT SHOULD THE AGREEMENT CONTAIN?

Commissioner Wright summarizes the experience of England and other countries with collective bargaining and outlines the essential characteristics of the trade agreement as follows:

"The terms of a trade agreement must be clearly stated, and all the details as to wages, hours of labor, and other working conditions agreed upon, and so clearly that they are not subject to any differing interpretations; but there are certain basic elements or stipulations which should be incorporated in every agreement. It should be an essential feature of the contract that no question shall be conclusively acted upon by either party to it independently, but shall be referred for settlement to a joint committee, which committee shall consist of an equal number of representatives from each association or body or party entering into it, and that the findings of the committee shall be final and binding upon the parties and upon their respective members. It should be clearly understood and stipulated that in no event shall strikes or lockouts be permitted, but that all questions and differences shall be submitted to the joint committee, work to proceed without stoppage or embarrassment, and that no sympathetic action shall be taken by either of the parties, or by their members, in support of any action taken by any other organization or the members thereof.

"The parties should also agree that there shall be no discrimination against workmen or employers by the parties to the contract, or by their associates, on account of membership or non-membership in any society or organization whatsoever. Also, that the joint agreement shall not be annulled by the withdrawal of either party, or otherwise, except after the date of expiration of the working rules established under the agreement, and then on notice to be filed by either party so intending with the other party at least six months prior to said date, and that no

amendment shall be made to the agreement except upon like notice and by a concurrent vote.

"These elements should be common to all agreements, and in some cases there should be stipulations that there shall be no arbitrary limitations of output on the part of the men, nor arbitrary demands for an excessive amount of output by the men on the part of the employers; that all unfair or unjust shop practices on the part of men or of employers shall be discouraged by the respective parties to the agreement; that any attempt on the part of either party to enforce any unfair or unjust practices upon the other shall be the subject of rigid investigation by the officers of the respective associations, parties to the agreement, and that if upon careful investigation the charges of such practices are sustained against the party complained of, then that party shall be subject to discipline according to the by-laws of the respective associations."

FREEDOM OF CONTRACT.

As to the ethical influence upon society of the trade agreement, Commissioner Wright says:

"The world is beginning to recognize that there are two investors in every productive enterprise,—the stockholder of the company, or the member of the partnership, and the wage-earners themselves. One party invests some of its capital in the enterprise. The wage-earners invest all their capital, which is their labor, hence in all rational ways they should have a voice in the making of the contract which binds them to contribute their capital in association with the capital of the stockholder. Labor has moved from status to contract, but the ordinary contract is one made entirely on one side, or by one party to collective bargaining, the other having no voice in it except one of consent. The freedom of contract does not apply in the ordinary relations between employer and employee, except so far as the wage-earner is obliged to accept the conditions offered him, and by consenting thereto he in a sense, technically at least, indulges in the freedom of contract. By the trade agreement, however, under which all the conditions of production are discussed and laid open before him, there is the utmost freedom of contract, and the best results of it. Collective bargaining, therefore, represents the interests of both parties crystallized in mutual agreement, for no agreement can be made until the minds of the two parties come to a common point.

OTHER ADVANTAGES OF THE METHOD.

"This principle is being recognized more and more, and, as already intimated, to an extent

not known to the public at large. Great railroad systems make contracts with their men, members of local unions affiliated with the brotherhoods. They do not advertise these things, because they are features of the regular conduct of the railroad business, but they are most emphatic endorsements of the principles involved in the trade agreement.

"The trade agreement is one of the best offsets to socialism, for it satisfies the working-man in the idea that he is really a party to productive enterprise. Hence he feels more of a man. Under the contract he is the equal of his employer, and in carrying it out he takes pride in preserving that equality. Of course, this agreement may be abused in certain cases to the detriment of the community at large, but it cannot long be abused, because it is made between the employers of an institution or establishment and the employees of the same, and not through a conglomeration of associations for the purpose of restricting trade and organizing a conspiracy. Surely any method that advances human progress, by preserving the manhood in men and by securing their dignity and loyalty, is worthy the careful and most considerate attention not only of employers everywhere, but of all students of economic conditions."

"THE MADNESS OF MUCH POWER."

POWER—without a corresponding responsibility or sense of responsibility—this is the "madness" which is seriously threatening the life of the American people. This is the text for a vigorous and trenchant article by David Graham Phillips in *Everybody's Magazine* for February. Mr. Phillips considers the love of money and the mad race for power which he declares has become "a dangerous delirium" in the United States. It is all the same, no matter what class one speaks of. He says:

"The custodian of concentrated power may be an enthusiast like Morgan, or a cold and stomach-like Rockefeller, or a suddenly crazed Schwab or Gates; he may be a professional corruptionist, a Platt or Croker; he may be a Dowie or chief man of a Mormon church; he may be a Debs or a Sam Parks. The condition of the possession of power produces always the same result of delirium—dangerous delirium. Some are mad for money; others are mad for fame, which they cannot distinguish from notoriety; others, again, have the desire to rule in its simplest form. But they all go the same way. Some are actuated by the highest motives; some are merely deluded into thinking their motives high; others, again, and these are naturally the

most numerous, have as profound a contempt for morals as they have for law or for the rights of others. But, whatever their motives, the net result is the same—rule and ruin."

THE MODEL FOR THE CONTROLLERS OF MILLIONS.

John D. Rockefeller he claims is the great example. He was "the original exploiter of vast irresponsible power, the original industrial victim of the madness of too much power." He has been the model for thousands. Every town that has an organization of any kind under the control of one man has a faint imitation of Rockefeller. He "set the fashion in manners for the controllers of organization."

"Take Addicks and Delaware,—a sovereign State the door-mat for the muddy boots of a carpet-bagger. Take Montana, distracted and debauched by the fights of rival copper kings, who shamelessly buy not only legislatures but also courts. Or there is Pennsylvania, the slave of Matt Quay, of whose true character not an intelligent child in the State is ignorant. Take Platt, the agent of the big New York State corporations, and in his arrogance he uses the Republican party to elect Democrats, that he may assail the ambition of his sturdy and aggressive young rival, Odell. In the cities,—there is Durham, of Philadelphia, Croker, of New York; there are the ravenous rings which have been exposed in St. Louis and Minneapolis, and so on through a long and humiliating list. The organizations which are at once the sources of this kind of bosses and their instruments are called political. In fact, they are in every case purely business enterprises, engaged in the same industry the Standard Oil Company is so successful at, and the Shipbuilding Trust is so unsuccessful at,—the business of fleecing the private citizen openly, insolently, with the Tweed grin. 'What are you going to do about it? . . . Mr. Rockefeller, or Mr. Gould, or Mr. Morgan, or Mr. Carnegie, or a hundred other lesser lords of finance and trade,—wave, or rather hire expensive and crafty lawyers to wave, the magic wand of organization, and the federal administration is helpless. A few men meet in an office in New York or Chicago, and prices rise or fall, and the law chatters its fangless gums and gnaws its nails in helplessness."

So general is the feeling that a man in power "must show his power by doing things that will differentiate him from the peaceful, law-abiding masses of his fellow-citizens" that "We find the President of the United States running about, fancying that his position gives him the right to advise the people upon their most personal affairs,—how they shall spend their money,

how many children they shall have, what shall be their standards of morality and of social conduct. He interferes in labor disputes, agitating employers with the fear that in any dispute they may have with their men the President of the United States may suddenly appear on the other side,—for how can a candidate for an elective office be on any side but the side of the most votes, whatever he may intend? And when canal negotiations do not go fast enough to suit him, and a sister nation does not conduct itself in the negotiation as he thinks it should, he establishes precedents of tearing up treaties and carrying everything with a high hand."

HOW IT WILL END.

There will be an end before long, says Mr. Phillips.

"For the turn of the tide we must look to the people, to the masses of Americans who wish neither to be robbed nor to rob, who wish neither to rule others nor to be ruled themselves, who may admire 'smartness' and 'aggressiveness,' but who do not have those qualities as their own moral standards, nor approve of them as standards for American politics, business, or professions. This mass is deliberate of motion. It must first see just what to do. Then it must find leaders to do it. Then it must be assured that in the doing more will be gained than lost. When that time arrives there will be a great 'sobering off,' a sharp recovery of sanity, a sudden discovery that the 'majesty of the law' is not merely something to talk to the fellow one has robbed in order that he may not become violent, but is something to take home to one's self, even though one be President of the United States, or of a railway company, or of a manufacturing or mining concern, or in whatever other position of responsibility, to be honest, just, and faithful to the public.

A CHECK AHEAD.

"The possibility of power in this country came hardly half a century ago. Latterly it has been developing with accelerated speed. This will be temporarily checked from time to time by such spectacles as Mr. Morgan's recent discomfitures, Mr. Cassatt 'put to grass,' and Mr. Schwab hauling in the wretched remnants of a once umbrageous pair of antlers. And the permanent check may come sooner than we expect. All the 'smartness' in this country isn't used in the exploiting of this much-power lunacy. A considerable part of it is trying to contrive sober, practical measures for retiring lunatics and for abolishing the opportunities which were their undoing. And the measures will surely be found."

THE DEMANDS OF THE LABOR UNIONS.

ADMITTING the right of laborers to organize,—a right that was formerly contested,—most employers now object to certain features of labor-union policy, and by forming counter-organizations endeavor either to limit the activities of the unions or to induce them to forego their coercive methods. An editorial article in *Gunton's Magazine* for January discusses, from a point of view friendly to the unions, the chief points in union policy to which exception is generally taken by employers,—namely, the "closed shop," the boycott, and the union label. In opening this discussion, the editor says:

"If the employers avoid abuse and meet the issues squarely on their merit, giving full recognition to unions, with the exception of these features, the labor controversy will be elevated to a distinctly higher plane. Of course, the unions will stick very tenaciously to these coercive weapons, because they seem to have been so effective. There is a sense in which coercion may be justified as a weapon with which to fight coercion, just as armies and navies are justified to meet armies and navies; but coercion, either by employer or laborer, cannot be justified in any peaceful adjustment of economic relations, and if the industrial controversy between capital and labor is to become really economic, and merit the approval or even tolerance of the public, it must be conducted on the plane of rational, economic conduct consistent with individual freedom and economic responsibility."

Since the "closed shop" means not only that none other than union laborers shall be employed, but that all the rules of the shop shall be made by the unions, and that the foreman shall be a member of the union, it is clear that the management of the business is practically taken out of the hands of the employers. Furthermore, looking at the matter from the laborers' point of view, every element of competition is removed, and the unions become compulsory organizations. This, it is argued, would ultimately destroy the economic and social usefulness of the union itself

LABOR UNIONS MUST BE FREE.

"If unions are to render permanent service to laborers, they must be voluntary organizations. If any device can be invented by employers or laborers by which laborers can be coerced into joining or from joining labor unions, then these organizations no longer represent either the best thought or the best interests of the laborers. They must necessarily soon degenerate into mere dictatorial groups. There can be no valid objection to all the laborers in a shop being members of a union, but their mem-

bership must be voluntary, or it is destructive of the personal freedom of the laborers. There is no principle in ethics, economics, or equity that will make the coercion of laborers by laborers any better than the coercion of laborers by capitalists; moreover, the possession of any such coercive power tends to degrade those who possess it. The open shop is as necessary for the freedom of labor as it is for the economic responsibility of management."

CAN THE BOYCOTT BE JUSTIFIED?

In regard to the boycott, another means of coercion more or less effectively employed by the unions, this article maintains that with the disappearance of the black-list as a means of persecution employed against the unions the last excuse for the boycott is removed.

"There may be conditions under which it may be justified as a weapon of war, but it can never be justified as an economic method. Of course, it is true that it is a part of personal freedom to buy where one pleases and patronize such business men as one may choose, from any motive whatever, and it may be admitted to be the right of the free citizen to communicate that preference to his friends; but to go into an organized effort and carry with it the coercion of ostracism and punishment by fine, expulsion from the union, and, in short, to use all the coercive power of the organization to enforce the boycott, makes it worse than conspiracy. It makes it systematized persecution. A voluntary boycott could seldom do very serious damage, because people will not voluntarily refrain from doing business with any person or firm merely to satisfy the sentiment of another. If a person is conspicuously objectionable, he may be, and if he is objectionable enough, and the fact is generally known, he will be, ostracized; but the trade-union boycott is not conducted that way. It is conducted on the same principle as the closed shop. If the walking delegate or the executive committee of the union decides that the goods of a certain firm shall be boycotted, all the members of the union and federated unions and the unions in other trades are forbidden to do business with that concern. The violation of this edict is followed by all the kinds of punishment that the power of the organization can inflict. In some cases, it is a heavy fine; in others, expulsion from the union, which may mean ruin. This is not an economic corrective; it is persecution just as much, and of the character, as the black-list. In fact, it is a black-list; the only difference is that the boycott black-list is enforced by the pains and penalties of the union, and the employers' black-list is voluntary."

ETHICS OF THE UNION LABEL.

A third form of coercion employed by the unions is the union label, which announces to the world that the goods bearing it have been made by union labor.

"The theory is, and it is to a large extent true, that union labor is superior to non union labor. As a matter of fact, it is true that in most industries, and particularly highly developed mechanical industries, the best workmen are in the union; and the label at least indicates that the laborers received union wages, and, in all probability, that they worked under the most favorable conditions that organized labor could command. This is an economic and a moral reason for giving preference to goods so made. Other things being equal, those concerns that pay the best wages and furnish the best sanitary surroundings for their laborers should receive the best patronage of the public; but the union does not stop here. The idea behind the union label, like that behind the white label of the Consumers' League, is erroneous. The motive of introducing both was good,—it was to enlist the interest of the consumers in favor of union-made goods, because they are made under more humane conditions; but this idea is sympathetic and philanthropic rather than economic. The union label and the Consumers' League label both ask the consumer to investigate 'the history' of everything he buys. Economically, the consumer should not be expected to do other than go into the open market for the purchase of his goods and be governed in his purchase by the price and quality only.

"Any system of labeling that seriously interferes with this economic freedom of the consumer would soon destroy the effect of real competition. Moreover, it is the wrong end of the process to which to apply force for increasing wages or improving the workshop condition of laborers. The free selection of goods by the consumer tends to insure the best price and quality; but nothing the consumer can do will operate backward upon the wages and conditions of the workshop. These must be effected by the laborers. No amount of scrutiny by the consumers would give better wages to the workers, even if the consumers would make this scrutiny; and no amount of appeal or threat of coercion will force the consumers to do it. Unions may make their members do it, and they often compel their members to buy inferior goods at high prices; but they can never make the general consumer do it. The public may be asked to favor a policy that would give the best conditions the law can provide for laborers both in

the shops and their homes. As citizens, this is a proper function of the public; but as consumers it is not their function to scrutinize and investigate the economic or moral conditions under which their goods are produced. This is the function of the laborers themselves."

SAN FRANCISCO UNDER THE SWAY OF THE LABOR UNIONS.

NO other city in the United States is so completely dominated by the labor unions today as is San Francisco. Eastern people who have not read of any great strikes for the past two years in San Francisco, while strikes have been of frequent occurrence in almost every part of the country, may be inclined to question the validity of this statement. A glance at the facts, however, will show that the absence of labor troubles has been directly due to the absolute rule of the unions. In fact, there is in San Francisco precisely what Mr. Ray Stannard Baker calls "a corner in labor." In the February number of *McClure's Magazine*, Mr. Baker relates in detail what is happening in San Francisco, and shows what may be expected to happen in other cities where labor organization becomes as fully developed. Time was when the employer was supreme, and able to prevent the organization of his laborers. Later arose conditions similar to those in the Pennsylvania coal regions, where miners and operators are equally well organized. But in San Francisco it is the employer who has suffered defeat, while unionism has achieved an unprecedented triumph.

WHERE THE EMPLOYERS LOST.

Mr. Baker, in his studies of the San Francisco situation, went back to the great teamsters' strike of 1901, in which almost every industrial interest of the city was involved. At that time the city was enjoying an unusual degree of prosperity. Money had poured in during the Spanish War, and discoveries had been made which greatly cheapened mechanical power and stimulated industry. The workingmen of San Francisco have always been largely of pure American birth. Whatever else may be said of their methods, they have at least been intelligently directed. San Francisco unionism started out, just as many of the trusts and employers' associations in other parts of the country started out, to control the market. The aim was to form a labor monopoly which would drive out the "scab" competitors and force the "closed shop." In contending with this rapidly growing organization, the employers adopted tactics which, in Mr. Baker's opinion, were unwise.

They avoided recognizing the union, and in a measure their contentions were successful. After the strike, their workmen came back without reference to their affiliation with any labor organization. The right of free contract was established. But it seems that this was a victory on paper only. Practically, the union won the day Mr. Baker says: "There is a kind of fighting

HON. EUGENE E. SCHMITZ.
(San Francisco's "Union" mayor.)

which makes the enemy stronger; that was the method of the San Francisco Employers' Association. It was an example of how not to combat unionism. The police had been injudiciously used, and the stand of the employers had been too sweepingly against the very principle of unionism, so that when the strike was over the unions found public sentiment strongly in their favor. They put up a candidate for mayor, and he was elected by an unexpected majority, giving them a grip on the political machinery of the city. Then they proceeded to convert or drive out non-union men in nearly every industry in San Francisco. They were as ruthless in their pursuit of 'scabs' after the strike was over as before, so that in a very short time they had secured a practical monopoly of the labor market."

ENORMOUS INCREASE IN WAGES.

So much for the situation at the end of the strike of 1901. Now, what have the unions ac-

complished since that date? In the first place, Mr. Baker shows that they have put up wages in San Francisco until they are higher than in any other city in the world. Within the last few weeks, plasterers have been paid \$8 a day, and lathers \$10 a day, for eight hours' work; while the minimum wage of bricklayers is \$6 a day, of carpenters \$4, of tilelayers \$5, of hod-carriers \$3.50. In some industries, wages have been doubled since the strike of 1901, and in few, if any, branches of employment has the increase been as low as 30 per cent. Now, the significant thing about all this is not so much the absolute increase of wages, great as that has been, but rather the fact, which perhaps is not fully understood in the East, that the cost of living in San Francisco is remarkably low. While in other cities workingmen, during the past two or three years, have been able to increase their wages, still the increase has seldom, if ever, been greater than the increase in the cost of living. In San Francisco, conditions are different. As Mr. Baker points out, the fuel bill there is small, while vegetable and fruit products are plentiful and cheap. Professor Plehn, of the University of California, has lately investigated the comparative cost of living in fourteen of the principal cities of the United States, and gives it as his conclusion that San Francisco is the cheapest place to live in the fourteen cities included in the investigation. Mr. Baker, therefore, concludes that since in San Francisco we find the highest wages and cheapest living to be had in any important American city, it is doubtful whether the conditions of workingmen were ever better at any time in any country than they are to-day in San Francisco.

HOW THE LABOR MARKET IS CONTROLLED.

Mr. Baker proceeds to set forth other results of unionism's triumph in San Francisco which are less obvious, but not less real or important. For instance, the unions there have formed monopolistic combinations with employers' associations, much more effective, Mr. Baker says, than those of Chicago. They have developed in the building trades "a labor boss by the side of whom Sam Parks of New York was the crudest of bunglers." They have also reached out into politics, and have become a dominating force in municipal affairs, having elected and reelected their candidate for mayor, Mr. Eugene E. Schmitz, a member of the musicians' union. They have also entered business on their own account as employers of labor. As an illustration of the grip which the unions have secured on the labor market in San Francisco, Mr. Baker states that it would probably be impossible to find a non-union man in any one

of the sixty-two building trades. In some callings, however, like that of the retail clerk, organization is by no means effective as yet. But even in those callings, the unions are extremely active in forcing the men "to join or to get off the earth." Here are two sample instances related by Mr. Baker: "I had not been in the city more than twenty minutes when I saw two men, each wearing a union badge, pacing up and down the sidewalk in front of a café and shouting: 'Unfair, unfair; this is a scab house; go down to —'s; he hires union help.'

"Every person who entered was thus accosted; the union had set about ruining the owner's business or forcing him to employ only union help. A little farther up the street I saw a sandwich-man walking industriously back and forth in front of the Owl drug store, bearing this sign in big letters:

"'Boycott the Owl, the enemy of the wage-earner. Don't take chances on scab drugs.'

"Within the space of a block there were three such boycott men, attacking the business of three different firms. While I was in San Francisco, one of these firms, that of M. Siminoff, cloak dealer, closed its factory as a result of the boycott, throwing two hundred and sixty workers permanently out of employment."

"WHAT IS SAUCE FOR THE GOOSE IS SAUCE
FOR THE GANDER."

Mr. Baker relates numerous instances of boycotting, and describes the methods of the new labor boss as developed in San Francisco. He also gives interesting details of the rapid development of the unions as capitalists. On the whole, he concludes that all these methods are essentially similar to those employed by capitalistic combinations. Both have precisely the same object,—to crush competition. "One drives the independent company ruthlessly to the wall, the other knocks the 'scab' on the head with a brickbat. The union boycotts, the trust blacklists; the union has its pickets, the trust its paid spies; each limits output, each restricts membership; one fixes a minimum wage, the other a minimum price; each equally clamors for special legislation." So far as the ethics of the matter is concerned, Mr. Baker absolves neither party from error. He believes that while the unions are trying to get all they can, the trusts have shown them how. He sees no reason why the unions should not form a political party and vote. The corporations get class representation in our legislatures, and even in Congress, by bribery and purchase; why should not the union men vote for what they want? If we allow trusts to own legislatures and city

governments, we must not complain if the unions elect them. The problem now before the American people, Mr. Baker concludes, is to fix the limitations of monopoly, to apply to the trusts and corporations as well as to the labor union.

THE HIGH-SPEED ELECTRIC RAILWAY TRIALS IN GERMANY.

THE Marienfelde-Zossen high-speed electric railway trials of last September and October attracted world-wide attention, but the conditions under which they were made have been imperfectly understood in this country. We are indebted to Dr. Alfred Gradenwitz for a detailed description of the road and the cars, which appears in the January number of the *Engineering Magazine*. From this account, it appears that these important experiments were chiefly due to the enterprise of the two leading electric firms in Germany, the Siemens & Halske Company and the Allgemeine Elektrizitäts Gesellschaft (familiarily known by the abbreviation "A. E. G.").

The Marienfelde-Zossen military railroad line,

which was set apart for the experiments by the German Government, is 23 kilometers (about 14½ miles) in length, and has no curves of less than 2,000 meters radius, while the short gradients of the line are not more than 1:200. The rails originally used on this line were light,—67 pounds to the yard. As it was found that such equipment would not sustain speeds of over eighty miles an hour successfully, new rails were laid having a weight of 84½ pounds to the yard. These were placed on fir sleepers with hard wooden pegs. Broken basalt was used for ballast. More than two-thirds of the track was fitted with guard rails fixed on cast-iron beds screwed to every sleeper. This arrangement not only helped to prevent derailments, but imparted an extraordinary strength to the whole roadbed. For a technical description of the overhead line, the motors, and the wiring, the reader is referred to Dr. Gradenwitz's article.

In concluding his account of the record performance on October 28 last, when a speed of 130.5 miles an hour was attained, Dr. Gradenwitz says:

"From a car running at such exceedingly high speeds, neighboring objects, of course, will

CAR USED IN THE MARIENFELDE-ZOSSEN HIGH-SPEED RUNS.

(View taken immediately after the successful trials on October 28, when a speed of 130.5 miles [130.5 miles] an hour was attained.)

disappear from view. Though the motorman would be able to distinguish obstacles on the track, this would be of little use, the braking distance,—i.e., the distance from the beginning of braking to the stopping of the train,—being two kilometers, and sixteen hundred horse-power having been necessary to obtain the desired speed. Lookers-on could just distinguish the presence of men in the car; before, however, they were able to fix their figure, the car had disappeared from view. Though the track is very straight, there elapsed, at most, half a minute between the first appearing of the train and its passage and the instant of its disappearance on the horizon.

"As the maximum authorized speed has now been reached, it is not intended, for the moment being, to drive the speeds up to any higher figures, but to complete the measurements already made by an extensive series of records, so as to ascertain fully the working condition of high-speed electric railways. It is thought probable that under existing conditions speeds as high as 230 to 240 kilometers per hour may be obtained without any difficulty; but as no authorization is obtained, for the moment, this will have to wait for next year. It is thought probable that after the successful results of these trials some railway will be equipped according to the principles ascertained on the military railway, so as to allow of these interesting trials being continued on a larger scale."

ARE THE NEW YORK THEATERS SAFE?

ALMOST simultaneously with the news of the Iroquois Theater horror in Chicago, there appeared an article in the *Theatre Magazine*, of New York, seriously questioning the safety of many of the playhouses in that city. The writer, Mr. Harry P. Mawson, once had an exciting experience in an opera-house fire at Geneva, Switzerland, and has a full realization of what a theater panic means to the participants.

The Chicago calamity proved an exception to Mr. Mawson's generalization that in all theater fires where loss of life has occurred the buildings had long been known to be fire-traps. Furthermore, it is this writer's declared belief that comparatively few of the New York theaters are unsafe at the present time, and for this reason his statements as to the conditions that prevail in this small minority are the more worthy of attention. He says:

"The laws governing the construction of theaters in the State of New York are most stringent, and adequate for the safety of the theater-going public, provided that the theater

is of recent date; but there are at least eight prominent theaters in active operation to-day in New York City, to say nothing of Brooklyn, which are nightly a menace to the public and the licensing of which must take some extraordinary political 'pull' to secure. One of these has a stage entrance down a flight of cellar stairs from an adjoining street, with all the dressing-rooms for the actors underground. The place has one stairway to the balcony, and the 'gallery gods' take wing down a side entrance to the building from Broadway.

THEATERS ABOVE AND BELOW THE STREET LEVEL.

"Another theater which adjoins a prominent hotel is practically upstairs, and the aisles barely accommodate one person to pass at a time. The rows of seats are so shockingly close together that as the auditor sits in his place his knees and his nose are in such close proximity to each other that he has the backache, if not the stomachache, before the end of the first act of any play. Should a panic occur in this theater, only a football-player could get out alive. Still another theater is upstairs, and has one solitary flight of winding stairs, down which the entire audience must plunge in time of panic, to meet another flight of steps before reaching the street. It is well known that winding stairways are a deadly source of danger in time of panic.

"One more theater, originally built as a music hall, has a stage which is below the level of the street, to reach which the actor descends what is called a stairway, but which is nothing short of a narrow, steep ladder.

"A popular theater, facing on Broadway, has a rotten wooden stairway in an old building by which those whose income admits of fifty cents for a seat must enter from the street. Other theaters are overcrowded as to seating capacity.

MINIMIZING THE FIRE RISK.

"Nothing is of more vital importance in a theater than wide aisles, stairways, roomy seating arrangements, numerous exits, fire extinguishers, hose lines, sprinklers over the stage, asbestos curtains, and also a system of separate lighting for the fire-escapes and lobbies entirely detached from the lights on the stage or in the body of the house. Nothing adds to panic so much as the sudden collapse of lights and continued darkness in the auditorium; yet in some theaters in New York there are no such extra lights, and if the electric lights suddenly failed the house would be plunged into absolute darkness, making egress almost impossible. A panic under such conditions is awful to contemplate.

"The use of electricity has materially dimin-

ished the danger of fire in theaters, for while defective insulation is still a source of danger, it is happily a remote one; whereas the flaming alcohol torch which was used to light the border lights, and even the footlights, was a constant source of horror in the hands of the careless stage hand. Calciums must be handled with great care,—they emit sparks, and some-

other usual causes of fire, and partly because many fires which actually started during a performance, for instance, by carelessness in the use of fireworks, or by the use of firearms, do not break out at once, but smolder for a while in the inflammable scenery and woodwork of the stage, and break out during the hours following the performance. The risk from fire immediately before the performance and while the audience is admitted is found to be three times as great as during other hours of the day, which is explained by the fact that at this time the gas jets which illuminate the scenery are lighted. Theaters, therefore, are safest in the daytime. The danger is increased threefold during preparations before the performance, because of lighting up, etc.; it is reduced during the performance, on account of greater watchfulness on the stage, but is still two times as large as during the day. The danger reaches a maximum (seven times the day risk) during the two hours after the close of the performance, and it remains during the night nearly three and one-half times as great as during the day."

Theater Fires of the Past.

The terrible disaster in Chicago lends exceptional interest to the paper in the *Nineteenth Century* for January by Sir Algernon West, of the London County Council. This writer gives the following figures concerning theater fires of the past:

"In 1,100 selected cases occurring between 1797 and 1897 at home and abroad, the number of fatalities, according to some authorities, is fixed at not fewer than 10,000, and the loss of valuable property has been enormous. In this generation there have been fires at Brooklyn in 1876, when 400 people lost their lives. In 1881, at the Municipal Theater at Nice, 150 to 200 were killed, and in the same year 450 perished at the Ring Theater, Vienna. In 1887, 115 perished at the Opera Comiqué, Paris, and in the same year, at the Exeter Theater, 127 persons were burned. In 1891, thirteen lost their lives at the Theater Royal, Gateshead; and the fire at the Paris Bazaar, which should not perhaps be classed in the same category as the buildings with which this article deals, is fresh in all minds, as is also the fire at the Comédie Française in 1900, which occasioned the death of the artist Mlle. Henriot.

"In London, in a properly licensed building, no life has been lost (except that of a fireman in the performance of his duty at the fire at the Alhambra, in December, 1882) since 1858, when, at the Cobourg Theater, now Royal Victoria Coffee Music Hall, sixteen persons were killed in a panic resulting from a false alarm of fire."

A NEW YORK DEVICE FOR DROWNING OUT THEATER FIRES.

(This is an invention of Mr. Oscar Hammerstein's, and consists of a system of perforated pipes connected at each end with a large pipe, or "header," eight inches in diameter, which in turn connects with tanks on the roof by valves close to the rear wall.)

times explode,—and the taking of flash-light photographs is not looked upon favorably by the insurance companies. Smoking is supposed to be strictly forbidden on the stage and in the dressing-rooms, but it is more observed in the breach than otherwise. Some gas is still used, and it must be on in all the dressing-rooms or the actors must resort to candles, as electric-light bulbs do not heat grease-paint.

"The greatest danger from fire, to a theater, says Civil Engineer Gerhard in his interesting treatise on the subject, is during the two hours following a performance, and not during the performance, as would naturally be supposed. The reason for this is partly that during the performance greater watchfulness exists as regards open lights, the sources of heat, and the

SIR OLIVER LODGE.

THE tenth article of the series in the *Pall Mall* on "Master-Workers" is devoted by Mr. Harold Begbie to Sir Oliver Lodge and his work. Sir Oliver Lodge is best known to most people as a scientific man, and as president of the Society for Psychical Research, but he is also principal of Birmingham University, the greatest educationist in the midlands, and "the moving spirit in the association which is turning the Black Country into a green country," not to speak of his many minor interests, such as golf, Ruskin study, and poetry.

Sir Oliver Lodge is now fifty-two years of age. Though not a self-made man, he was one of those destined by their parents for an utterly different life—a humdrum commercial career in the potteries. His father, however, clearly did not oppose his son's wish to leave business for a scientific training in London.

A COMPARISON WITH LORD SALISBURY.

In appearance, there is certainly some resemblance between Sir Oliver Lodge and the late Lord Salisbury, especially about the head. In character, the resemblance seems but slight.

"Oliver Lodge was once described by a child as 'the great big lion with the white satin heart.' It is an excellent figure. The hugeness of the man,—he is many inches over six feet,—the almost brusque voice, the rigid line in the brows, and the mouth which occasionally hints at a sort of giant petulance, all tend to impress one at the first glance only with the idea of conscious strength and crouching power. But acquaintance with him reveals a character singularly gentle and lovable, and a temper wonderfully sweet and attractive. He retains, as so many men engaged in university life do retain, much of the joyous youthfulness of life. Friendship with him speedily transforms reverence into warm affection, and I can think of no really great man whose influence on those about him is so entirely that of character rather than that of intellect. One is always, I mean, much more conscious of the man than of his knowledge and power."

TELEPATHY AND COMMUNICATION WITH OTHER WORLDS.

Passing over the statement about a communication from Frederic Myers, made as expressly stated on Mr. Begbie's authority, and not altogether seconded by Sir Oliver Lodge in his letter to the press, the following may be quoted :

"What we can take before the Royal Society [he continued], and what we can challenge the judgment of the world upon, is telepathy. Here

is the beginning of a wider conception of science. Directly men see and admit, as they must do from the overwhelming evidence, that it is possible to transmit ideas direct from brain to brain, without the intermediaries of speech and hearing, they are looking into and gaining admission to new fields of exploration. Mind you, it is a dangerous field ; I have described it as the border land of physics and psychology, and admitted that the whole region appears to be in the occupation of savages abandoned to the grossest superstition. But I say we have got to take the country, and rule it for the advantage of mankind."

Telepathy, then, and the possibility of communication between this and other worlds, if we may take Mr. Begbie as correctly reproducing his words, are both considered by Sir Oliver Lodge well-nigh, if not quite, established facts.

THE SUBLIMINAL AND SUPRALIMINAL CONSCIOUSNESS.

Sir Oliver Lodge, we are told, inclines to the belief of the late Frederic Myers "that the ego of the soul exists spiritually, moves and has its being,—that is to say, on the spiritual plane, and that functioning there as the subliminal consciousness, it detaches from itself a certain portion of its own consciousness which accretes matter, and becomes the supraliminal consciousness with which we are alone familiar. At death, the atom of supraliminal consciousness, which we now call me, rejoins the subliminal, which is the larger me, carrying with it the fruits of its experience, adding to the whole ego fresh knowledge, and retaining in perfectness its own memory of the earthly or material life. The subliminal consciousness, that is to say, is not an earthly consciousness, and we, as we know ourselves here, are only fragments of our whole self striving to acquire experience through a physical medium.

THE POWER OF PRAYER.

"If we are open to influence from each other by non-corporeal methods [Sir Oliver Lodge is represented as saying], may we not be open to influence from beings in another region or of another order ? And if so, may we not be aided, inspired, guided, by a cloud of witnesses,—not witnesses only, but helpers, agents, like ourselves, of the immanent God ? How do we know that in the mental sphere these cannot answer prayer, as we in the physical ? It is not a speculation only, it is a question for experience to decide.

"I know that his own faith in the power of prayer is great. He told me that we had not yet even begun to find out what is possible

through the medium of prayer. Only it must be prayer with the whole soul behind it, convinced of its own strength, and perfect as knowledge."

THE HARD LOT OF THE FRENCH JOURNALIST.

IN an entertaining article entitled "Le Proletariat des Journalistes," in *La Revue* (formerly the *Revue des Revues*), M. Paul Pottier paints a lugubrious picture of the half-starved, threadbare journalists of the Grub Street of Paris. With few exceptions, the lot of the Paris hack is one of the most miserable and uncertain possible. In the first place, he is not paid a salary, but so much per line of his material which is used. The Paris dailies have a uniform tariff, per line, of 15 centimes (between three and four American cents), excepting only the *Temps* (30 centimes), the *Figaro* (25 centimes), and the *Gaulois* and the *Gil Blas* (20 centimes). The Paris hack, it seems, at \$30 dollars a month, must live on 50 cents a day, and clothe and lodge himself on 50 cents more. In France, says M. Pottier, journalists are only employees, and a journal is merely a commercial venture.

"The hack interview and the hastily written report have succeeded the beautiful pieces of literature and the calm chroniques and editorials. The work has become more exacting, less literary, and less interesting. The editors, held down by their journal as though part of the severest commercial administration, have no time to dream or to write well. They are deprived, at the same time, of the right to sign their articles, and, unknown to the public and to their confrères, they are condemned to stagnation. From the day when the directors have them completely in their hands, salaries go down. To-day, the greater portion of the journalists are of the intellectual proletariat. Their number is greater than the places which need them. Their position is less stable. Each month, the director has the right to discharge them like any other employee. . . . And an editor who has lost his place will find it very difficult to get another."

MEAGER AND UNCERTAIN SALARIES.

"A special journalist" can earn a salary ranging from 250 to 1,000 francs a month. The ordinary reporters make from 150 to 400. On the *Temps*, a good reporter would earn 300 francs a month and be paid every fortnight. In addition to the smallness of the compensation, the Paris journalist has the uncertainty of receiving it at all. This writer relates an incident in point. M. Edmund Magnier, proprietor of the *Évenement*, used to greet his new editors with

this question, "Would you prefer that I allow you 500 francs a month without paying you, or that your salary be 250 francs a month and that you get it?" The nature of the replies is not given, but it is recounted of one special writer whose salary was in arrears that he went to the stable of the proprietor, led out one of his horses, and sold it out on the public square for his claim.

"Paris has become too small to support all the journalists that throng there. The painter without a purchaser, the priest without a church, the actor without an engagement, the professor without a pupil, the lawyer without a case,—all these could find work more easily than the journalist without a place. The journalist without a journal is a lost being."

When out of a job, these hacks do all sorts of menial work. They are beginning to go into the provinces, where the journals of the smaller towns are pushing the great Paris dailies hard in the race.

M. Pottier does not believe that there is any hope of a remedy for this sad state of affairs. Publishers, he says, are too busy looking after their own selfish interests, and journalists have not yet conceived the idea of a professional solidarity which would make possible a trade-union among literary workers.

LETTERS OF H. A. TAINE.

THE second and third volumes of "The Correspondence of H. A. Taine," which are soon to be issued by the Librairie Hachette, in Paris, are appearing serially in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. Most of the letters were written by the historian between 1848 and 1854 to Cornélis de Witt and Guillaume Guizot. M. de Witt was an old schoolfellow of Taine's at the Lycée Bourbon, and their friendship lasted through life. Guizot was the historian's brother-in-law. These letters are full of the charming personal little touches which show Taine's affectionate nature. In these letters, also, we get glimpses of the workings of that wonderful, logical mind which evolved and elaborated the best history of English literature.

A QUIET, PHILOSOPHIC LIFE.

In one letter to M. de Witt, the historian describes his method of life.

"I live a cloistered life, only going out to see my family and one or two friends, scarcely going into society, which bores me, but spending my holidays in the country and my free evenings at the theater. I only enjoy relations with other people and social life in order to observe charac-

ter and to see the manikins playing, like a naturalist who loves the spectacle of life because it furnishes him with subjects for experiment. I ought to be a professor of philosophy; I have adopted the career of professor, and of professor of philosophy in particular, because, taking everything into consideration, it is the one which would deprive me of the least amount of my liberty, and would give me the greatest possible means for reading and thinking. I have reflected and learned much; all that I wish for is to reflect and to learn more. I find that ideas are mistresses possessing immortal beauty and a sovereign power. . . . I am not a Christian, as you know; I have become neither socialist nor reactionary. I trouble myself scarcely at all about politics, and after what I have seen I do not desire either of the two parties to gain the victory."

All through these letters is the same charming intimate note. He gives his friends the latest gossip of the scholastic world in Paris, tells about his own plans, and bestows some graceful touches of criticism on the art exhibition of 1853, in which the pictures of Rousseau, Delacroix, and Meissonier appear to have interested him most. He notes that he has read Macaulay, "whom I admire infinitely as an historian." In a letter to M. Guizot, he gives his opinion as to the aim of literature.

THE AIM OF LITERATURE AND ART.

"Is the aim of an artist to be read? Yes, if he seeks for glory and money and public utility. No, if he loves the beautiful purely and solely. . . . Why should artists consider themselves as preceptors of the human race? They adore an idea, and not the crowd. It is for us as commentators to introduce the public among them. If the end of a writer is to interest and instruct a great number of readers, then 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' is the first among masterpieces. I am in this matter much more of an aristocrat than you, both in the matter of science and in that of art. Do you think that Aristotle, in writing his 'Metaphysics,' or Spinoza, in writing his 'Ethics,' hoped for readers? The former showed his notes to Eudemus or to Theophrastus; while the latter sent his hypotheses to Louis Meyer, both being perfectly persuaded that their analyses or their deductions would not change the smallest thing in human affairs, while they were quite certain of being attacked, forgotten, or slandered for a long time, and this is exactly what happened. Life at the topmost height of thought is a solitary one, but that is so much the worse for those who are below, not for him who is on the pinnacle. I quote to a friend of

Greek a word of Aristotle, 'The more useless and unpopular a science is, the more precious it is.'"

THE EQUIPMENT OF A PAINTER.

"A little about painting, if you please. One of my artist friends, returning from his first visit to the Beaux-Arts, tells me that the Salon is really nothing but one long wail of impatience and pain. According to him, the quality of imagination necessary for creative painting has perished. There are those who try to bring it back by copying; for example, M. Ingres; others, like Delacroix, who try to replace it by poetic imagination. He says there are musicians, men of lofty minds, historians, panegyrists, logicians, philosophers, but no more painters. I explain his idea something like this: For two centuries, a dreadful quantity of abstract ideas, general formulæ, psychological analyses, have been piling up in the heads of men. Read, for example, the life of Benvenuto Cellini, that of Michael Angelo, or of the Flemish painters, and you will see a contrast between their brain and ours, for the imagination of a painter consists in having inside of him a sort of curtain upon which every moment he can outline in all their details landscapes, men, bodies, forms, and colors. For example, you mention the words 'a great house.' Immediately you have the image of the edifice, with its columns, its doors, its ornamented windows, and so forth. . . . Take a brain thus organized by the discipline of our education. We analyze the impressions, take in, one by one, the pictures which are born in the imagination, and distinguish by exact terms the different emotions which each one calls up in us. . . . Michael Angelo wanted to write a book on sculpture, but he could not. He did not know how to analyze his ideas. Compare his 'Last Judgment' with that of Martin. The latter worked upon an abstract religious idea, —God, tremendous, unknown, lost in the infinite, with countless myriads of the elect and the damned, in space with limit lit by the flashes of the celestial light. His picture is nothing more than a translation of an idea, of a psychological formula, of a scriptural phrase. . . . You see the predominance of psychological education. Look, on the other hand, on the copy of Sigalon. . . . The basis of the spirit of Michael Angelo is a constant vision of the human body. While we have been living in books, he lived before human forms. . . . His 'Last Judgment' corresponds to no idea that we have ever seen. His Christ is so real,—so real in his limbs, of a body so solid and so earthly that we would not wish for a better street porter. There is noth-

ing of the indefinite or the vague in his members. The artist only wished to make a body strong and terrible. The terror and anger which gleam in his composition are seen only in the torsion of the muscles and the contraction of the face."

M. Taine does "not find the English any sadder than the French; they are certainly as civil." Perhaps they have "stronger, ruder nerves, are more difficult to move, and are greater lovers of physical pleasure." But the Merrie England of the sixteenth century still lives.

"THE REAL DISCOVERERS OF AMERICA."

IN an article under this title, Dr. Latouche-Tréville, in *La Revue*, argues that the early Buddhist missionaries from Japan to California were really the ancestors of the dominant native races of America, and the actual discoverers of the continent. He argues that the passage from Kamchatka by way of Bering Strait and through Alaska was quite possible. All along the North American coast, from Alaska to Mexico, he traces, even to the Isthmus of Panama, the progress of these Japanese missionaries, adducing ethnological, economic, and linguistic proofs. Mexican folk-lore, he says, proves beyond a doubt that there were oral traditions among the Mexicans in which figured white men of the Mongolian type "in long white robes, who talked to the people in a language of goodness, and preached unto them peace, self-control, unselfishness, and righteousness." He produces, as evidence, pictures of Aztec deities which have curious analogies to Chinese sacred images. He also makes some interesting linguistic and etymological comparisons; for example, Guatama (one of the patronymics of Buddha) has its analogies in Guatemala, Huatamo, and Guatimozin. Another name of Buddha, Çakya-Mouni, suggests Oaxaca, Zacatecas, and Zakatekolula. Even, he says, if one were as skeptical as Voltaire, he could not help being astonished at these similarities, and could not believe that these similarities are accidental. Ancient Mexican architecture, he says, is strongly suggestive of an Asiatic origin. The statuette of Buddha (there is no mistaking the intention) in priestly costume found at Campêche, in Yucatan, and the deity with the face of an elephant found in Aztec countries, were "certainly copies of the idols of the East." One is forced to believe, concludes this writer, that "the Buddhist missionaries were the true discoverers of America," and that this discovery was made "ten centuries before that night of the 11th of October, 1492, when the Genoese

navigator, in the service of Spain, saw from his high-decked caravel the solid ground upon which he set his foot and called 'San Salvador.'"

LATENT TUBERCULOSIS.

IN the *Revue Scientifique* of December 5 is an exceedingly valuable article by Dr. Hericourt entitled "Tuberculose latente et Tuberculose atténuées." It is written from the standpoint of a physician, and much of it is too technical to be of interest to the average non-scientific reader. It is too long and too detailed to be susceptible of an abstract that would do it justice, but it brings out very clearly some interesting facts that may be well known to the advanced physician but are new to most people. Within the limits permitted in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, it is impossible to treat it fairly, but it may be possible to indicate some of the points.

Dr. Hericourt brings out very clearly the fact, now well known by all physicians, of the almost universal spread of the disease in some form. Through the dust of the streets, infection is very common, and great numbers of people have the disease without ever being aware of the fact, and recover. Taking into account such cases, it may be said that it is a perfectly curable disease, and of all diseases, is the most frequently cured without the aid of a physician.

These mild cases may be due either to an attenuation of the bacillus or to a partial immunity in the patient. This immunity may be brought about by hygienic conditions. Some men contract the disease readily under favorable conditions, and recover rapidly under a changed environment, such as that produced by another climate. In other cases, the immunity may be from vaccination. Natural immunity is found in *arthritiques*, who readily produce fibrous tissue, and in the descendants of consumptives.

When tuberculosis attacks new fields, its results are quickly fatal, the disease running a rapid course. But the descendants of these patients, if they have the disease, have it in a chronic form. They have acquired a certain degree of immunity. He quotes various authors in support of this statement that immunity is acquired by heredity. One author, Magnant, goes so far as to say that a child born of a tuberculous mother is refractory to phthisis through its whole life, and that the influence passes to its descendants.

The attenuation of the bacillus may, then, result either from the environment or from causes lying within the patient himself, like heredity. This attenuated bacillus is very widely prevalent. When we speak of a person as having a predis-

position to tuberculosis, he already has the disease in a mild form.

He then discusses the symptoms of this attenuated form of bacillus in some detail, particularly as found in children, showing that many other diseases, like pleurisy, are only the result of this infection.

He considers the duty of parents and physicians in recognizing latent tuberculosis, and in treating it at the beginning. We should not be afraid of the word tuberculosis, for the disease is not to be feared, and it should be attacked before, under present circumstances, we acknowledge the existence of disease. The physician must be more frank, and the public must be educated to a better understanding of the curability of this complaint. He closes in these words:

"To the physician of the future, philosopher, philanthropist, attentive, and capable of seeing that which is still invisible to the people as a whole, the sick, the families, and the responsible heads of material and intellectual affairs, will recognize that it is their duty and interest to render obedience."

WINTER LOGGING IN WISCONSIN.

TIME was when the lumberman in the northern woods was absolutely dependent on frost and snow as aids in his logging operations. Now the steam logging railway has made it possible to haul logs in the summer time; but even yet the winter is the loggers' busy season in many parts of Wisconsin and Minnesota, and hauling by sleds over icy roads is still the prevailing method used for transporting the pine logs from their habitat to the streams which float them down in the spring to the sawmills. This important link in the lumber industry is graphically described by Mr. Robert V. R. Reynolds in the January number of *Forestry and Irrigation*.

The logs, says this writer, are rolled on to the sleds (each of which, without its load, may weigh from two and one-half to three tons) by means of two movable skids leaned against the load, layer after layer, until the boss loader thinks the limit of safety has been reached.

"When the top of the load is above the logs on the skidway, the power of a team is employed to roll the logs into position. This is done by

fastening one end of a rope on top of the load, passing the bight down under and around a log on the skidway, and returning the free end across the load to a team on the opposite side of the road. When the team goes ahead at the word, the log rolls up the movable skids in the bight of the rope, balanced and steadied by the peavies of a man at each end. After two or three layers of logs are loaded on the sled, binding chains are passed around the load, holding it firmly to the framework below. Then two or three more layers of logs are rolled into place, and these also are bound in position by chains, and so the process is repeated until the load is large enough.

"The first load over the new road will probably be a very small one. The road must be tested and prepared to some extent for heavy traffic. For this purpose (supposing, again, that we are thinking of Wisconsin), the rutter is sent over the road to prepare the permanent track. The rutter consists of a sled with long single runners which pack the snow evenly and make gradual, easy curves where curves are necessary. A small snow-plow on each runner plows out the deep snow from the path where the horses of the loaded teams must walk. Frequently, a solid road of ice is built up by repeated sprinkling from a tank of water mounted on a sled. The ice may be twelve to twenty inches thick, according to the ease of getting water. Then a rutter is used, with knives mounted on the runners which scoop grooves in the solid ice, in which the sled-runners may track. In many of the Northern States, however, the rutter is dispensed with, and the sleds are made to track eight feet wide.

"Excepting only an iron wheel rolling on an iron track, these ice roads oppose less friction to the pull of the horses than any other device for transportation which men have yet been able to discover. Unless there are considerable grades to be overcome, a good team can haul from five to twenty tons on such a road after it has attained its best condition. The difficulty lies rather in starting the mass than keeping it in motion."

In regard to the size of the loads, Mr. Reynolds observes :

"It is almost needless to say that such a load as the large one shown in the illustration is heavier than any in ordinary practice, and was probably made up mostly for the picture. Intense rivalry springs up among the drivers as to which team shall haul the heaviest load of the year, and this results in the hauling of some tremendous loads on the ice roads. But woe betide the unlucky team and driver when such an unwieldy mass gets beyond control on a

grade. Then the utmost efforts of the team can hardly keep them from being overrun, and both horses and driver have often been injured or crushed to death."

HERBERT SPENCER.

IN several of the January magazines appear articles on the life and work of the late Herbert Spencer. The *North American Review* contains an interesting character study of the dead philosopher, from the pen of his former private secretary, Prof. W. H. Hudson. Professor Hudson sums up Herbert Spencer as "morally the greatest and noblest man I have ever known." He says :

"Spencer's face was a strikingly expressive one, with its strong frontal ridge, deep-set eyes, prominent nose, and firmly cut mouth and jaw,—the face, as you instantly saw, of a man marked out for intellectual leadership. The features which, however, arrested attention in particular (as again the portraits show) were the magnificent broad brow and high-domed head, which led many qualified observers to assert that Spencer's cranial development was the finest they had ever seen. In his case, there was no such incongruity as sometimes exists between the man's appearance and his work ; the one seemed to harmonize wholly with the other. One thing, however, would perhaps astonish you, as it astonished George Eliot. The forehead of a great thinker is generally plowed deep with the lines of thought. Spencer's was to the end as smooth as a child's, bearing no traces of his long years of intense intellectual strain. This was probably due, as he once suggested to me, to the fact that instead of setting himself to puzzle out problems he allowed his thoughts to evolve themselves naturally. It was also a little surprising that his long-continued ill-health appeared to have had so slight an effect outwardly upon him. His tall and rather gaunt figure was almost to the last wonderfully erect ; his cheeks were always ruddy ; his splendid voice,—which would have been a fortune to an orator,—retained its richness and resonance, his rather rare laugh its deep-chested musical quality. Few men in the eighties were as well preserved as he was ; and it was difficult, in looking at him or listening to him, to believe that for half a century he had been to a considerable extent an invalid.

"He was often irritable, and sometimes quick of temper and of tongue ; his judgment of men was occasionally severe ; and he had so little tolerance for the foibles, prejudices, and petty absurdities of every-day life that he now and then struck one as hard, and even censorious.

He set up an extremely high standard of conduct, and was outspoken in his condemnation of meanness, untruthfulness, and trickery, of sordid ambitions and weak subserviency to the dictates of the social code. But it must be remembered that, unlike many moralists who make rigorous demands upon the integrity of others, he made demands equally rigorous upon himself. The severe standard by which he tested the conduct of his neighbors was the standard by which he governed his own life."

HIS LOVE OF MUSIC.

Mr. Spencer was not a reading man, and in particular cared little for imaginative literature.

"But while the lighter forms of literature yielded him only moderate pleasure, music was a never-failing source of satisfaction. He would listen hour after hour while one played to him from the compositions of the great masters, valuing expression, as might be anticipated, far above virtuosity. He had enough knowledge of music to make him a critical as well as a responsive auditor; and while his taste was fairly catholic, he returned habitually to the standard writers of the older schools, like Handel and Bach, Beethoven and Glück. Wagner he enjoyed in parts; but most of the modern composers he was accustomed to dismiss as clever technicians merely, lacking in true inspiration."

A PHILOSOPHER'S EAR-STOPPERS.

Of his famous "ear-stoppers," Professor Hudson says:

"Years ago, Spencer found that the effort of following ordinary conversation frequently became too much for him; but he liked to have people about him, to watch the play of expression on their faces, to feel that, though he could not himself share much in the merriment, he was, as it were, a part of the normal and healthy social world. For this reason, he objected to withdrawal into solitude, and evolved a plan by which he might secure the partial isolation which he required. He had a circular spring made to go around the back of his head, and this carried pads which fitted firmly upon the ears, effectively deadening the noise about him and reducing the surrounding chatter to a mere hum. I have often seen him, stretched at length upon his couch, follow with apparent interest the gossip over the afternoon teacups up to a certain point, and then, reaching under his pillow, draw forth and adjust this instrument, thus suddenly detaching himself from his environment. The effect of this movement with comparative strangers was always to cause an instant cessation of the conversation. But this

was precisely what Spencer did not wish. 'Go on talking,' he would exclaim, with a quizzical look; 'I can't hear what you are saying, you know!'"

Professor Hudson concludes by telling us that the philosopher, toward the end of his life, was a disappointed man. He saw socialism becoming stronger, and he saw, also, unmistakable signs of reaction in religion, politics, and society.

As a Man.

A very interesting but highly critical article is that by Dr. Fairbairn, which opens the January *Contemporary Review*. Dr. Fairbairn sums up Mr. Spencer as follows:

"Admiration, indeed; for Spencer as a man and as a thinker is not inconsistent with doubt as to his distinction as a man of letters. For us, the nineteenth century boasts no braver man or more typical Englishman. He had an infinite capacity for standing alone, for being faithful to forsaken causes, for obeying the truth he believed. He loved man too thoroughly to court popularity, or even to care for it; rank as rank never appealed to him, for he despised wealth too utterly to lavish his esteem upon any place that riches could buy. He had a native dignity of mind that made him insensible to vulgar ambition and indifferent to applause. He might regret to find men careless of truth or of freedom, but his regret was for their sakes alone. It effected no change in his attitude to his own ideals. His defects were all on the surface,—a formalism of speech that approached pedantry; an unimaginative monotony of style that made him, the least Philistine of men, seem a veritable Philistine to persons of shallow culture; an aloofness from common things that appeared to speak of a too conscious superiority; a temper so uniformly didactic as to challenge criticism and even to invite contradiction; and an independence of conventional ways that moved the conventional, according to their disposition, either to holy disdain or unholy anger. But his merits, which could be seen only by the man of open eye, were solid and more marked,—his rare integrity, his uncompromising honesty, his unselfishness, his kindness, his noble and tender outlook on the oppressed and distressed."

AS A THINKER.

But he criticises him seriously as a philosopher. He says it would be more correct to speak of him as a thinker than as in the strict sense a philosopher. Of the history and problems of philosophy, ancient and modern, he was ignorant; and he was not familiar with Hegel, who anticipated him and "formulated a

theory of evolution and distinguished it from emanation, and had courageously applied it to the whole realm of experience or known existence. He had described nature, analyzed man, conceived society, explained law, art, religion, thought, and civilization. His philosophy was therefore even larger than Mr. Spencer's, and as he had died while Spencer was still a youth, it was natural that a man who tried to unify knowledge should have studied one who made the attempt so shortly before him."

THE PEOPLE'S PHILOSOPHER.

Spencer was the philosopher of the people and the press, the maker of current speculative formula, a metaphysician who spoke in the language of the physicists. Dr. Fairbairn says:

"While I thus recognize the services Spencer rendered to scientific speculation, I must still deplore his poor philosophical equipment, and the consequent poverty of his contribution to real philosophy, whether of knowledge or of existence. On the other hand, no man can think of the greatness of the universe as he saw it, and the immensity of the problem he tried to grapple with, without being moved to gratitude. I say this, while most conscious of two things,—the comparative blindness of the man to the profoundest questions in the history of man, and his disinclination, to call it by no harsher word, to see the great significance of the higher religious personalities in history."

Herbert Spencer on Music and the Drama.

In the January number of the *Musical Times*, Sir Hubert Parry jots down a few of his recollections of Herbert Spencer. He writes:

"My recollections of talks with Mr. Spencer are very scrappy and uncertain, and too many of the things I remember most vividly were naturally such as I profoundly disagreed with. They usually had nothing to do with music. One, which I remember most definitely, was about football, which he at the time condemned very decisively as a brutal and demoralizing game. I could not help chaffing him a little about it, as he looked so supremely unlikely to have any practical experience. He took it quite well, but just persisted in reiterating his objection and suggestions. One of the latter was that any one who shinned any one on the opposite side should be fined half-a-crown!

"Another time, we were talking about contemporary art, and after pouring a good deal of scorn upon the most prominent painters of the day, he ended solemnly with the remark that 'art had a great future before it in the line of making machinery beautiful—that there was so much room for application of beauty of design and

detail in the making of the cylinders of engines and piston-rods and cranks and driving-wheels.'

"About music, he once informed me, as a thing I ought to know, that the art was passing into such a state of extravagant complexity that it was a physical impossibility for the ear to disintegrate the confused mass of sound. I argued that a first-rate conductor, like Richter, for instance, could hear every single part in the most complex piece of orchestration, and even if one little hautboy played a wrong note, he could pick it out, and that if he could not he would not be worth his place. But the philosopher merely repeated that it was purely a scientific question, and that it could be demonstrated that the human ear could not identify the details or unravel the complications of more than a certain number of sounds at a time, as the apparatus was not provided for it. I merely answered that his theory was contrary to fact and experience, and we both remained where we were."

THE UNIVERSITY OF ATHENS.

IT is safe to assume that not many university men in this country have ever known much about the work of a modern, working university in the ancient metropolis of Greece. "The University of Athens" suggests anything but a modern institution of learning, and yet we are told by President C. F. Thwing, in the February *Harper's*, that the institution in question has just as definite functions as Columbia in New York or Harvard in Cambridge. Placed in the midst of the modern city of one hundred and fifty thousand people, the university has buildings, he says, "more beautiful than those of any American college, with possibly two or three exceptions. It has a body of some twelve hundred students in its four departments of arts and sciences, law, medicine, and theology. It enrolls a faculty of one hundred members. It has a library of two hundred and fifty thousand volumes, housed in a noble marble building which may be compared, even if its location be less impressive, with the library buildings at Columbia. It has also laboratories of the sciences, placed in buildings which show the advantages and disadvantages of the construction of twenty years ago. The University of Athens is a definite, local, modern institution of the higher learning and teaching."

A DEMOCRATIC SCHOOL.

Many characteristics outlined by President Thwing remind us of our own Western State universities. As democrats, the Greeks are friendly to the higher education.

"The University of Athens is called a na-

tional university. The name is wisely chosen ; it is national,—but it is not governmental. The German universities are national, and they are sometimes also more governmental than national. Not such is the University of Athens ; it belongs to the people. The government, through the minister of education, performs certain formal functions, in the making of appointments, but the support is derived from the people more than from the exchequer. The buildings were built by the offerings of the nation. The buildings, too, which have association more or less intimate with the university, represent the beneficence of individuals. The library building is the gift of the Villianos brothers ; the neighboring school for girls, the Arsakion, was founded and endowed by Mr. Arsákis ; the Academy of Science was built by Baron Sina, of Vienna, as was the observatory ; the Polytechnic Institute represents the benevolence of a few Greeks ; and the magnificent stadium is the result of a gift of one million dollars made by a lover of Athens.

STUDENTS "WORKING THEIR WAY."

"For the higher education is peculiarly dear to the heart of the modern Greek. Regard for it is stronger and more widely spread among all classes than obtains among any other European people. Many a Greek home of small resources, and even of poverty, gladly sacrifices precious interests that a son may be educated. This son, too, coming to the university, is not unlike the American youth who earns his way through college. In most Continental universities, self-support, in part or wholly, is far less usual than in American colleges. But in Greece, the American custom seems to prevail. Any work which a student can do in a city like Athens is done by scores of these men. Serving as janitors, as

waiters, selling newspapers, doing chores of all sorts, represent this work. The tales, too, of the self-denial of students, practised in order to get an education, in the city of Socrates are akin to the stories which every American college president gladly and sadly hears."

THE MODERN ATHENS "GYM."

Regarding the athletic side of Athenian student life, President Thwing says :

"The modern gymnasium of Athenian students,—more a private club than a university institution,—is both like and unlike the American. The Athenian institution is a combination of a gymnasium building and an athletic field. It is a gymnasium out-of-doors, fitted up with all kinds of apparatus, and containing opportunities and facilities for track athletics of all sorts. Each field, also, has a building, usually small, containing bath and dressing rooms. Few things make more vivid and impressive the ancient life than seeing these young fellows, vigorous and happy, speeding away on the race-track, doing the long jump, or swinging on the bars. The fascination of the old and the new Olympic games is upon these men as it cannot be on our American college man, although the American college man bore off more prizes at the last great contest than the Greek. That magnificent modern and ancient stadium, too, is near in distance and feeling. Be it said, however, that the general physical *build* of the Greek man is not so athletic as is the constitution of the better-trained American student. The very rigors of the American climate, which prevent our having a gymnasium without a roof and without a floor, may aid in developing a stronger set of men than the semi-tropical skies of Greece permit."

RECENT ASTRONOMICAL ADVANCE.

SIR ROBERT BALL believes that the most striking advance in modern astronomy, so far as general knowledge of the contents of the heavens is concerned, is contained in a description of the results obtained by observations made in recent years at the Lick Observatory. The discoveries were not made with the great Lick telescope itself, but with a reflecting instrument, the work of the English astronomer Dr. A. A. Common. This instrument has done splendid work in the photography of nebulae. Sir Robert Ball says (in his article in the February *Cosmopolitan*):

"It should be observed that a great telescope does not necessarily, nor indeed usually, mean a large field of view presented at one time to the observer. Those who are unaccustomed to astronomical observation are often a little surprised, and perhaps not a little disappointed, to find how small a portion of the sky may be comprehended in one glance. Under ordinary conditions, the hemisphere of even the moon or the sun would not be visible in a single field of a great and powerful telescope. If, therefore, a survey of the whole heavens is to be made, a correspondingly large number of different fields must be separately examined. It can be shown that if the whole surface of the heavens was divided into forty thousand squares, all equal to one another, then one of these squares would about represent such a portion of the celestial sphere as could be obtained within the four corners of such photographic plates as are found convenient for astronomical work. If, therefore, a survey of the whole heavens is intended to be made, then it would be necessary to secure not fewer than forty thousand separate pictures. To obtain these pictures was the sublime task which he [Professor Keeler, in charge of the English instrument above mentioned] proposed, and which he actually commenced. He succeeded in obtaining a number of these pictures, alike excellent as examples of photographic skill and as illustrations of celestial portraiture. Fortunately for our present purpose, the pictures which he did obtain were not congregated in one region on the celestial sphere, but were fairly distributed among different constellations. It was, we understand, the belief of Professor Keeler that the pictures he obtained may be regarded as fair examples of what might have been expected had he been able to carry

out the scheme of photographing the whole heavens. It must, however, remain open to some doubt whether the inference which he drew from the photographs which he secured may be applied in all its fullness over the whole extent, which would have needed forty thousand squares to cover it. For the final settlement of this point, we must await the completion of the scheme of which Keeler was not able to do much more than the inauguration.

VAST NUMBERS OF NEBULÆ.

"Keeler did, however, take a large number of pictures, and he examined carefully the various nebulae which these pictures exhibited. On some of these plates were found, of course, nebulae that had long been known to astronomers, for it will be remembered that before Keeler commenced his great survey the total number of known nebulae might be reckoned at about seven thousand. As we have seen that about forty thousand plates would be required for the portraiture of the whole heavens, it might have been reasonably expected that a known nebulae would make its appearance on an average of one in every six plates. But the astonishing feature which Keeler's researches disclosed was that the nebulae which are known, even though they are counted in thousands, are but few indeed in comparison with the multitudes of the new nebulae which are crowded on the photographic plates after exposure in the great reflector. Among the sample photographs that Keeler obtained from different parts of the heavens, some plates had ten new nebulae and some had twenty, and some had even thirty. Three was indeed the fewest number of new nebulae that he found on any one of the plates that he examined. Assuming that his plates are fairly typical of the nebulous contents of the heavens, it is hard not to admit the conclusion that he draws from these circumstances. If we take, as Keeler did, the number three to represent the average number of new nebulae to be expected as the result of each exposure, we shall certainly not overestimate the number, for it is to be remembered that three was the smallest number that he had found on any one of his trial plates. Assuming, then, that this would also be the number of new nebulae on each one of the forty thousand plates, we arrive at the startling conclusion that no fewer than one hundred and twenty thousand new nebulae are now awaiting discovery."



THE PERIODICALS REVIEWED.

THE CENTURY MAGAZINE.

"BRIC-À-BRAC Auctions in New York" is the title of a capital article in the February *Century* by Mr. Albert Bigelow Paine. So thoroughly developed has become the business of selling art collections at public auction that many New Yorkers will doubtless be surprised by the statement of one of the proprietors of an auction establishment that the business was almost unknown in the city prior to 1870. Art auctions in New York have now become social events, and, as Mr. Paine very clearly brings out, to a great extent they have a distinct educational value. Mr. Paine very cleverly hits off the psychological aspects of the subject.

JOHN BURROUGHS AND PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT ON RECENT NATURE-STUDY.

Mr. John Burroughs contributes an incisive paper on "Current Misconceptions in Natural History." He reiterates his conviction, expressed some months ago in his *Atlantic Monthly* article, and in other writings, that there is nothing in the notion that animals consciously teach their young. "Persons who think they see the lower animals training their young supply something to their observations, consciously or unconsciously; they read their own thoughts or preconceptions into what they see." Yet Mr. Burroughs fully admits that so trained a naturalist and experienced a hunter as President Roosevelt differs with him in this matter. He quotes from a letter of the President in which he says:

"I have not the slightest doubt that there is a large amount of *unconscious* teaching by wood-folk of their offspring. In unfrequented places I have had the deer watch me with almost as much indifference as they do now in the Yellowstone Park. In frequented places, where they are hunted, young deer and young mountain sheep, on the other hand,—and, of course, young wolves, bobcats, and the like,—are exceedingly wary and shy when the sight or smell of man is concerned. Undoubtedly this is due to the fact that from their earliest moments of going about they learn to imitate the unflagging watchfulness of their parents, and by the exercise of some associative or imitative quality they grow to imitate and then to share the alarm displayed by the older ones at the smell or presence of man. A young deer that has never seen a man feels no instinctive alarm at his presence, or at least very little; but it will undoubtedly learn to associate extreme alarm with his presence from merely accompanying its mother, if the latter feels such alarm."

President Roosevelt is also inclined to think that on certain occasions, rare though they may be, there is a conscious effort at teaching. He says that he has himself known of a setter dog which would thrash its puppy soundly if the latter carelessly or stupidly flushed a bird. Mr. Burroughs himself is inclined to the opinion that his difference with the President is due more to the different meanings attached to the same word than to anything else. Imitation, in his view, is the key to the whole matter. The animals unconsciously teach their young by their example, and in no other way.

WASHINGTON'S LAST PORTRAIT.

Among other features of the February number, the *Century* publishes a reproduction of what was undoubtedly the last portrait painted of George Washington. The artist was Dr. Elisha Cullen Dick, who was one of Washington's attending physicians in his last illness, and the date of the picture is 1797. The original painting is now owned by Judge James Alfred Pearce, of Maryland. This is believed to be an excellent portrait. In this connection is the interesting fact that Dr. Dick was the only one of the three physicians who attended Washington during his mortal illness who diagnosed the disease as diphtheria, although the name was not then in use.

Among the travel sketches in this number is Mrs. Edith Wharton's delightful description of "Roman Villas." Mr. Joseph Pennell relates his adventures in ascending the high Alps on a motor cycle.

HARPER'S MAGAZINE.

IN the February number of *Harper's* appears the second paper by Dr. Frederick A. Cook on "America's Unconquered Mountain,"—i.e., Mount McKinley, in Alaska. After outlining some of the difficulties encountered by the would-be climbers of this imperial mountain, Dr. Cook concludes his interesting paper with the prediction that future efforts along this line will depend upon a thorough exploration of routes from every side. Dr. Cook himself hopes to make an attempt from the east. The project will also be considered by other mountaineers. The fact that the mountain is so far inland renders the transportation of supplies and men a very arduous task. Furthermore, Mount McKinley is known to be the steepest of all the great mountains of the world; and it is unlike most other great peaks from the fact that Arctic conditions begin at its very base. In the case of Mount St. Elias, an all-ice route is possible. But on Mount McKinley the glaciation is not extensive enough for this. "The prospective conqueror of this immense uplift must pick his path over broken stones, icy slopes, sharp cliffs, and an average slope of forty-five degrees for at least fourteen thousand feet. It is an effort which for insurmountable difficulties and hard disappointments is comparable with the task of expeditions to reach the North Pole."

A SIAMESE ELEPHANT HUNT.

Alan H. Burgoyne gives a graphic description of an elephant hunt which he witnessed in Siam. This "drive," as it is called, is a feature which has been maintained in Siam for many years for the purpose of keeping up the ranks of the army elephant corps, which is the finest in the world. The object of the drive is to capture a few young elephants from the wild herds. The drive is held every few years, and requires a three months' preparation, during which time the small wandering herds of wild elephants have to be collected and driven together, and on the last day gathered into one vast herd, consisting in the drive witnessed by the

writer of this article of nearly five hundred elephants. Three days are occupied by the hunt. On the first day, the animals are merely driven into the corral; on the second day, likely-looking calves are captured within the corral; and on the third, the whole herd, with the exception of the captives, is driven out, and the hunt becomes a series of rushes by the infuriated elephants among the spectators. The corral consists of an enormous square inclosed by a wall built of solid stone, about twenty feet high, and perhaps thirty thick. The horrors of the situation developed on the second day, when several men were killed by the elephants in their mad rush into the crowd. In spite of these fatal accidents, which greatly marred the pleasure of the occasion, there were many interesting and some amusing incidents of the hunt, which are very well described in Mr. Burgoyne's article. An elephant, for instance, was seen walking through a row of lightly built houses near the river. The houses fell before the great beast like packs of cards. They were empty, and Mr. Burgoyne explains that the government replaced them.

THE MARINER'S COMPASS.

Prof. Simon Newcomb explains the uses and limitations of the magnetic needle as the mariner's compass. Few people, perhaps, have reflected on the fact that the introduction of iron and steel in the construction of modern ships has greatly modified the use of the compass, since the iron is itself more or less magnetic; and when steel is used, as it is in modern ships, this magnetism becomes more or less permanent. It is obvious that every great ship is herself a great repository of magnetism, and the direction of the force of this magnetism will depend upon the position in which the ship lay while building. If erected on the bank of an east and west stream, the north end of the ship will become the north pole of a magnet, and the south end the south pole. When she is at sea, the compass points not only according to the magnetism of the earth, but to that of the ship also. In order to get around this, a method known as "swinging the ship" has been adopted. When approaching land, the ship is swung around so that her bow will point in various directions. At each pointing, the direction of the ship is noticed by sighting on the sun, and also the direction of the compass itself. In this way the error of the pointing of the compass as the ship swings around is found for every direction in which she may be sailing. A table can then be made showing what the pointing according to the compass should be, in order that the ship may sail in any given direction. If, however, the ship heels over to one side, another error must be allowed for.

Mr. Cyrus Townsend Brady tells the story of "The Cruise of the *Tonquin*," a vessel which started from New York in 1810 to establish a fur-trading post in the Pacific Northwest, which had an adventurous voyage around the Horn, and which was finally lost somewhere in the North Pacific, members of the crew in one way or another reaching land and suffering death at the hands of the Indians.

Dr. Henry C. McCook contributes an entertaining article on "Tailoring Animals," in which the Baltimore oriole, the tailor bird, and the spider are conspicuous examples. We have quoted in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month" from President Charles F. Thwing's account of "The University of Athens."

SCRIBNER'S MAGAZINE.

IN the February number of *Scribner's*, Mrs. Helena Rutherford Ely describes "Some Gardens in Spain." With few exceptions, Mrs. Ely found that the Spanish gardens derived their beauty from their trees, flowers, and running waters, and that there was an entire absence of the architectural features upon which the Italian gardens so largely depend. Hardly one well-kept garden did she see in all Spain. "Weeds and flowers grew together, the paths were never very neat, hedges alone were carefully clipped, and yet the perfection of the flowers and the wonderful hedges of box, laurel, and myrtle, the ancient cypress and magnolia trees, and the fountains and pools, in a land so dry and treeless, made these gardens of Spain beautiful beyond words."

AN AMERICAN WOMAN'S LETTERS FROM ENGLAND IN THE FORTIES.

In this number appears the first installment of the letters of Mrs. George Bancroft, wife of the historian, written from England in the years 1846-49. Mrs. Bancroft was a widow when she married the historian, in 1838, who was himself a widower with three children. After a term as Secretary of the Navy in President Polk's cabinet, Mr. Bancroft became minister to England, and it was then that the letters were written from which these extracts have been taken. The letters are addressed to immediate relatives, and, of course, were not intended for publication, but they are interesting as revealing many aspects of London life which came under the eye of an exceedingly observant and intelligent American woman of that period. They are chiefly remarkable for their descriptions of social life in London in the middle of the nineteenth century, and for bits of gossip about Palmerston, Lord John Russell, and other noted statesmen of the period.

SALVINI IN RETIREMENT.

Mr. Norman Hapgood contributes an interesting sketch of Tomaso Salvini, the great Italian actor, as he appears to-day. Salvini, it seems, neither looks nor talks like an extremely old man; and, in fact, as Mr. Hapgood puts it, he cares about things, and that makes him seem more like sixty than like seventy-five. Salvini is not regarded as particularly clever in conversation, but he has other qualities that more than counterbalance this, chief among which are his simplicity and his sincerity. He is an admirer of American actresses, whose qualities of "dash, vitality, and go" are very attractive to him. Of our actors, the one of whom he speaks with most enthusiasm is Joseph Jefferson, whose "Rip Van Winkle" he deems a perfect work of art.

Charles Keene, universally regarded as holding a first place among English draughtsmen in pen and ink, is the subject of a brief appreciation by Mr. M. H. Spielmann. The purpose of this paper is to exhibit Keene's ability as an etcher, and four of his best pieces are here reproduced. These etchings were never done for sale, not even for exhibition; and, curiously enough, such books as Hamerton's "Etching and Etchers" give no hint that Keene possessed ability in this direction.

"The Centenary of Alfieri at Asti" is the subject of an article by Mr. T. R. Sullivan. The hundredth anniversary of this Italian poet's death occurred on October 2, 1808. Asti, which is now a prosperous community of forty thousand inhabitants, in the famous wine-growing district, observed the occasion with appropri-

ate ceremonies. It happened that the date coincided with that of Asti's movable autumnal feast,—the vintage. Mr. Sullivan's article is interesting, not only for its references to Alfieri, but for the light that it throws on Italian social life as well.

M'CLURE'S MAGAZINE.

IN the February installment of "One Hundred Masterpieces of Painting," contributed to *McClure's Magazine*, Mr. John La Farge discusses those pictures which have the incidents and phases of war as their subjects. Of all the paintings called out by the Napoleonic conflict, it is a significant fact that only two or three are deemed worthy to survive as art. The greatest of these is the celebrated "Napoleon at Eylau," by Gros. Such a painting preserves for us the record of the past of the art of war. As Mr. La Farge points out in concluding his article, the era of close conflict is over. The commanders no longer ride at the head of their men, or stand as an object for the enemy's artillery. "As the commander at sea knows only by the electric report what is being done out of his sight, so the commander of to-day can no longer be represented in the long line of personal appearance which lasts from indefinite Egypt to the close of the nineteenth century."

"OUR SPECIAL ARTIST" IN THE CIVIL WAR.

An interesting contribution to this number of *McClure's* is Mr. Frank Schell's account of "Sketching Under Fire at Antietam," being a war correspondent's account of his personal experience during a battle. What adds greatly to the interest of the article is a reproduction of the actual pictures drawn by the author in the midst of action in September, 1862. Considering the difficulties with which the artist must have labored, the pictures are indeed remarkable. Here is a bit of Mr. Schell's account of what happened on that eventful September day: "Cheered by their mounted and line officers, the lines again advanced, and passed on without further halt or hesitation, spraying around the big barn, as a great combing wave parts around an impeding rock, and then—the battle vanished as a fading vision, while a thick cloud of smoke rolled by like a blinding fog. It was a welcome reprieve, and a relief to the extreme nervous tension, which was utilized to put into shape some rough notes I had managed to make while groveling in the dirt. The partial lifting of the sulphurous veil revealed about and beyond the farm only unrecognizable masses, obscure and confused, in restless, undefined movement."

THE STANDARD OIL AND PRICE-CUTTING.

In a new chapter of "The History of the Standard Oil Company," Miss Tarbell explains some of the Standard Oil Company's competitive methods. She shows that the marketing department is organized to cover the entire country. It aims to sell all the oil sold in each of its divisions. To forestall or meet competition, it has organized an elaborate secret service for locating the quantity, quality, and selling price of independent shipments. Having located an order for independent oil with a dealer, it persuades him, if possible, to countermand the order. If this is impossible, it threatens "predatory competition,"—that is, to sell at cost or less until the rival is worn out. "In later years, the Standard has been more cautious about beginning underselling than formerly, though, if a rival

offered oil at a less price than it has been getting,—and generally even small refineries can afford to sell below the non-competitive prices of the Standard,—it does not hesitate to consider the lower price a declaration of war, and to drop its prices and keep them down until the rival is out of the way. The price then goes back to the former figure, or higher."

We have quoted, in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month," from Mr. Ray Stannard Baker's account of the San Francisco labor situation.

THE COSMOPOLITAN.

THE progress of Russia eastward is unique in its way, almost as wonderful as the advance of the American pioneer toward the West. In a study of the far-Eastern question entitled "The Conquest of Asia by Russia," which John Brisben Walker makes the leading article of the *Cosmopolitan* for February, we have this paragraph:

"From the very beginning, back in 1581, the men who went to the frontier were of the hardest and bravest type. A party of rebels—half brigands—defeated the forces sent against them by Ivan the Terrible, but were compelled to retreat up the Kama River until they were lost in the forest. Here they were joined by other adventurers, and, invading the country beyond, were able to obtain pardon by turning over to Ivan a great section of conquered territory. The deeds of valor, of desperate courage, of suffering, and of privation which marked Russia's advance would fill a hundred thrilling volumes."

In this number, Paul Potter discusses "The Art of Dramatizing Novels," John Elfreth Watkins, Jr., describes a number of ingenious mechanical methods for inducing sleep, Samuel E. Moffett contributes his sixth paper on the romances of the world's great mines, this number being on the discovery of gold in Austria; Cyrus Townsend Brady gives us the fourth chapter in his "Dramatic History of South America," and Logan G. McPherson discusses "The Breadth of Herbert Spencer's Teaching." The scope of the philosopher's work he puts thus:

"Through the ferment of the nineteenth century arose a man who, perceiving all that other men had brought to human ken, and by the grasp of his own intellect here and there filling in the crevices of knowledge, has shown the design that all the threads of existence are weaving. The Synthetic Philosophy formulated by Herbert Spencer attempts within the limits of human cognizance to explain why the suns and stars have formed; why there are land and air and water; why there is life; why plants and animals have attained their structure and multiplied; why the brain has developed; why there are memory, instinct, reason, imagination, will; why speech has come; why the arts have developed; why nations have formed and governments and laws have grown; why industry and commerce have extended. He has shown that all these manifestations of existence conform to a single law."

The twenty-second installment of "Captains of Industry" considers William Ellis Corey and George Cadbury. Herbert G. Wells has a part of his serial novel, "The Food of the Gods," and Sir Robert Ball recounts the recent advance in astronomy—a portion of his article being reproduced among "Leading Articles of the Month."

MUNSEY'S MAGAZINE.

A RACY description of Jekyl Island, the unique winter resort on the Georgia coast in which a club of multimillionaires find rest and recreation is contributed to the February *Munsey's* by Samuel M. Williams. This number also contains a study of aerial navigation by J. Frederic Thorne, a paper on "The Tercentennial of Henry Hudson," by Jane W. Guthrie, one on "The Deaf Blind," by Day Allen Willey, and one on "The Most Uneasy Throne in Europe" (that of King Peter of Serbia), by Fritz Cunliffe-Owen. The Wallace collection of paintings, the famous London gallery at Hertford House, is described by Walter Jenney Smith. This magnificent collection, it will be remembered, was bequeathed to the British nation, in 1897, by the widow of Sir Richard Wallace, third Marquis of Hertford,— "the greatest artistic gift ever committed at one time to the custody of a nation." Prof. Brander Matthews considers "The Development of the English Language." Professor Matthews pleads for simplification of English, "to make it better fitted for its magnificent destiny." What we really ought to do, he claims, and what we all really can do, is "not so much the acceptance of all these modifications of usage and simplifications of spelling, or even of any of them, but rather to induce the frame of mind which leads to a calm consideration of the advantages and disadvantages of each proposed amendment." We need to make it clear to everybody that "the English language is not dead, but alive, that it is growing and changing, that its syntax, its vocabulary, and its orthography are not and ought not to be in the twentieth century what they were in the eighteenth, that many alterations are certain to come in the future, and that we can each of us help in the good work."

EVERYBODY'S MAGAZINE.

"TWO Hundred Millions for a Canal," considered on another page of the REVIEW this month, is the leading article in *Everybody's Magazine* for February. Congressman John Sharp Williams makes an authoritative statement regarding "What Democracy Now Stands For." Tariff-revision, equal opportunities in the Philippines, less "reckless international conduct," but a real canal,—at Nicaragua, if possible; at Panama, if must be,—these are the principal tenets of the Democratic faith in 1904. Paul Severing tells a hero story under the title "Mike Martin, Fire-Truck Driver;" Vernon Howe Bailey begins a series on "American Cities in Pencil," leading with Philadelphia; Mrs. Reginald de Koven writes of "Western Society and Its Leaders;" Andrew Appleton discusses "The Real Issue in Automobiles," which he declares to be their racing quality; there is a gracefully written, tender, "significant autobiography" of a mother, and David Graham Phillips has a vigorous essay on "The Madness of Much Power," which is quoted from among our "Leading Articles."

FRANK LESLIE'S MONTHLY.

"DOES It Pay to Be a Doctor?" illustrated with portraits, by Arthur Goodrich, is the first article in *Leslie's Monthly* for February. It is an interesting picture, and a sympathetic one, that Mr. Goodrich paints of a doctor's helpful, philanthropic mission. The great financial rewards are not for the men of medicine. "There are, however, other rewards,

not for the doctor who plays politics, or who uses 'judicious advertising' without being caught, but for the conscientious, earnest man, 'what amplest recompense.' Saving lives by quiet heroism, healing the sick, lengthening and lightening the days of many a chronic sufferer, daily deeds of kindness and charity, constant self-sacrificing service,—these form a heritage that money can scarcely measure. An old and successful business man, after a conversation with a poor country doctor whom he knew as a boy, remarked, with a tremble in his voice that cried sincerity, 'I'd give all I've got for that man's memories.'

"Did you ever see a surgeon at work and feel the calm with which he unostentatiously does wonderful and dramatic things? Have you ever met a good doctor of experience and failed to feel his usually quiet, dignified, forceful personality, with the sentimental edges knocked off by rugged experience, but with sympathies quickened and chastened by suffering? He is certainly different from the every-day man with whom you do business. Is it true that he is a dying relic of an 'old school,' or is he one of the bands between the old and a more vital future which will have in it the vigor and progressiveness of the present day, ripened and mellowed with old-time gentleness and charity?"

"THE FREEDOM OF LIFE."

This number also contains Broughton Brandenburg's second article on "Imported Americans," a chatty descriptive paper on "Making Flowers on Broadway," "The Fight for Copper," by William MacLeod Raine (one of the "Leading Articles" in the REVIEW for January considered "Heinze, the Copper King"), and a trenchant essay on "The Freedom of Life," by Annie Payson Call. There are, says this writer, "laws for rest, laws for work, and laws for play, which, if we find and follow them, lead us to quiet, useful lines of life which would be impossible without them. They are the laws of our own being, and should carry us as naturally as the instincts of the animals carry them, and so enable us to do right in the right way, and make us so sure of the manner in which we do our work that we can give all our attention to the work itself; and when we have the right habit of working, the work itself must necessarily gain, because we can put the best of ourselves into it."

THE WORLD'S WORK.

IN the February number of the *World's Work*, Mr. Sereno S. Pratt defends President Roosevelt against the various charges brought against his administration by the representatives of Wall Street. This writer takes the ground that Wall Street itself is in disgrace just now before the people, and that if the people once become impressed with the belief that Wall Street is opposed to Mr. Roosevelt because it could not control him, the opposition of the financial interests may be added help to his election. It is agreed, further, that many in Wall Street, and some powerful independent interests there, feel that the President has conferred a benefit upon it and the country by calling a halt to the excesses of promotion and speculation and corporate greed.

The *World's Work* having sent a specific inquiry to representative well-informed men in every State west of New York regarding the popularity of President Roosevelt, practically all replies received give assurance of Mr. Roosevelt's nomination. Most of the re-

plies, especially from the West, indicated that there has been no diminution in his popularity during the last three months. The answers generally showed that the President's policy with the trusts has increased rather than decreased his hold on the popular goodwill, while to the question as to whether the President's Panama policy is popular, the answers are practically all in the affirmative. The total impression given by these letters, says the editor, is that of an overwhelming personal popularity of the President in the West, and of hearty approval of all the important actions and policies of his administration.

SAINT-GAUDENS, THE SCULPTOR.

Mr. Charles H. Caffin's paper on "The Work of Augustus Saint-Gaudens finds the real secret of this sculptor's power in his grasp of facts. Of artists in general, Mr. Caffin says "there are some who cannot rise above the record of facts,—they are the average. There are a few who can dip right down into the fact and pluck from it the heart. They, in their way, are men of genius. It is among these that we shall rightly include the sculptor Saint-Gaudens." This is well illustrated in Saint-Gaudens' conception of Lincoln, the Shaw Memorial at Boston, the Sherman statue, and various other of Saint-Gaudens' prominent works.

THE PANAMA CANAL AND THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY.

Mr. Charles M. Harvey predicts that the Panama Canal will establish new balances and shift the country's trade center to the Mississippi Valley. Mills are getting nearer to the sources of supply, and the supplies of four-fifths of the more important commodities are in the great central plain between the Alleghanies and the Rockies. Fifty per cent. of American cotton is now manufactured in the South, as against 24 per cent. thirteen years ago. Since the natural outlets for a large part of this Southern cotton-manufacture are Gulf ports, it may fairly be assumed that the opening of the Panama waterway will stimulate both cotton-production and cotton-manufacture in the fertile States of the lower Mississippi Valley.

THE INCREASED USE OF ELECTRICITY.

Some idea of the recent advance in the use of electricity for power purposes is conveyed by Mr. Arthur Goodrich's article entitled "Providing the World with Power." Less than fifteen years ago, 200-horse-power generators were considered large, whereas now generators of 5,000 or 10,000 horse-power are a matter of everyday occurrence. Mr. Goodrich mentions one electrical works employing 12,000 people, three-fourths of whom are skilled workers, and states that from this factory alone goes each day, to every part of the globe, machinery to produce more than 8,000 horse-power. "We used to have a map," said one of the employees, "on which red dots showed the places where our machines were installed; but soon the entire map was red. Then we gave it up."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Henry Wysham Lanier describes the rise and fall of the United States Shipbuilding Company; Mr. Isaac F. Marcossion relates some personal experiences in the art of eating the right food in the right quantity; Miss Adele Marie Shaw describes the Philadelphia school system; Mr. Winthrop Packard writes on "The Work of a Wireless Telegraph Man"; Ezra S. Brudno explains the condition and character and experience of

the emigrant Jews in the Russian pale before they come to the United States; Mr. W. M. Ivins, Jr., discusses our responsibility in South America, and Mr. Alfred Mosely gives a witty view of American schools.

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.

"WALL STREET and the Country" is the subject of the opening article, by Charles A. Conant, in the February *Atlantic*. Mr. Conant reviews the experience of the past five years in the creation of industrial companies, with the fluctuations in their securities, and admits that the tendency to create securities has been overdone, and that the character of those issues has in many cases tended to become worse as the issues have increased. Nevertheless, the railroads and the banks had the same kind of experience in the early days of the consolidation movement, and they learned their lessons well. The industrial corporations must have larger reserves and sufficient working capital before they are planted on a solid basis. Mr. Conant also approves the principle of the security-holding company in giving a minority of strong holders the power to dictate the policy of the corporation. The voting trust, too, by putting power in the hands of responsible persons, offers a safeguard against stock-manipulation. The same kind of concentration of power and responsibility has already vindicated itself in banking. Why may it not bring about similar results in railroad management and manufacturing?

THE LINCOLN-DOUGLAS DEBATES.

To the formidable mass of Lincoln recollections embodied in our literature is now added a chapter from the pen of the late Henry Villard, who reported the Lincoln-Douglas debates for the *Staats-Zeitung*, of New York. Mr. Villard's impressions of Lincoln at that time are summarized as follows:

"As far as all external conditions were concerned, there was nothing in favor of Lincoln. He had a lean, lank, indescribably gawky figure, an odd-featured, wrinkled, inexpressive, and altogether uncomely face. He used singularly awkward, almost absurd, up-and-down and sidewise movements of his body to give emphasis to his arguments. His voice was naturally good, but he frequently raised it to an unnatural pitch. Yet the unprejudiced mind felt at once that, while there was on the one side a skillful dialectician and debater arguing a wrong and weak cause, there was on the other a thoroughly earnest and truthful man, inspired by sound convictions in consonance with the true spirit of American institutions. There was nothing in all Douglas' powerful effort that appealed to the higher instincts of human nature, while Lincoln always touched sympathetic chords. Lincoln's speech excited and sustained the enthusiasm of his audience to the end."

THE POLITICAL BOYCOTT.

In his discussion of the question "Is Commercialism in Disgrace?" Mr. John Graham Brooks makes a telling point on the use of the boycott in political life. The boycotting of persons definitely known to be evil is an index of a community's social morality. For instance, the Municipal Voters' League, of Chicago, persistently and effectively "boycotts" such men as are found to be personally unfit for office, and a Philadelphian has said that his city will retain the distinction of being the worst-governed city in the country just so

long as her citizens lack the moral stamina to begin to boycott "certain very influential persons in our city and State."

A SOUTHERN VIEW OF LYNCHING.

Mr. Clarence H. Poe, a North Carolinian, predicts that lynching will become less frequent as the law becomes more effective, that the teachings of the ablest leaders among the negroes will tend more and more to uplift the character of the race and to decrease the crimes which provoke lynching, and that the increasing density of population in rural districts of the South, with quicker means of communication, will do away with the mob spirit. He makes a powerful argument for the education of the negro, from the Southern white point of view.

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

AMONG the timely topics treated in the January *North American* are "Herbert Spencer: A Character Study," by Dr. William Henry Hudson; "The School of Journalism," by Horace White; "Lynching of Negroes: Its Cause and Prevention," by Thomas Nelson Page; "Two Treaties of Arbitration," by Thomas Barclay; "'Parsifal' and its Significance," by Lawrence Gilman; "Practical Phases of Caribbean Domination," by Frederic C. Penfield; "Mr. Root's Services in the War Department," by Gen. W. H. Carter; "The President's Message and the Isthmian Canal," by Francisco Escobar; and "The Jewish Question: How to Solve It," by Arnold White. The last-mentioned article is reviewed in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month."

IS THE NEWSPAPER PRESS DETERIORATING?

Mr. Horace White, who has had an experience of half a century in American daily journalism, writes with evident misgivings on the prospects of the Pulitzer School of Journalism at Columbia University. Mr. White does not believe that any special school is needed to teach the technique of newspaper work, and he does not admit that the "nose for news" can be cultivated at any college or university. The trouble with our modern journalism, according to Mr. White, is not so much the lack of facilities for training journalists as the lack of a demand for the highest type of men in the profession. The press of fifty years ago, he affirms, was, as a whole, "stronger intellectually, more influential, and more respected than the press is now, although, in the mere matter of news-gathering, it was as inferior to the press of to-day as a blacksmith's forge is to the Carnegie steel works." Good political writers are harder to obtain to-day, says Mr. White, than they were fifty years ago. The inference is that the demand has fallen off,—that young men of ability no longer see in our daily journalism as now conducted a really worthy field of labor.

THE LYNCHING EVIL.

As a plan for diminishing the number of negro lynchings in the South, Mr. Thomas Nelson Page proposes that in every community negroes be appointed officers of the law, to look exclusively after law-breakers of their own race, and to be held accountable for good order. At the same time, white officials should have enlarged powers of summoning *posses*, and by the mere fact of relinquishing prisoners should be disqualified from ever holding office again.

OUR SOUTH AMERICAN TRADE.

In his discussion of "Practical Phases of Caribbean Domination," the Hon. Frederic C. Penfield argues for the establishment of closer trade relations between the United States and Central and South America. He says:

"Our keenest business competitors, England and Germany, have lost their prestige throughout Spanish America, while our influence was never greater. Bullying tactics in the Venezuelan imbroglio alienated many friendships; whether England and Germany were justified in their acts is immaterial to the question. The trade of all Latin America can readily be secured by United States manufacturers and merchants, and retained indefinitely. German goods never had high standing in South America; now they are almost boycotted. British products, while better regarded, have a waning sale."

WOMAN AND THE BALLOT.

Mrs. Annie Nathan Meyer contributes a trenchant paper on "Woman's Assumption of Sex Superiority," in which she challenges the claims of the suffragists regarding the supposed fitness of woman for the franchise. The mental qualifications of women, she admits, have been enlarged in recent years, but the development of character, she holds, has failed to keep pace with that of the intellect. This she regards as an arraignment of the women's colleges. Mrs. Meyer, indeed, goes so far as to say that she fails to see in women any evidence of the character that is needed in our public life.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Prof. Goldwin Smith concludes his interesting review of Morley's "Gladstone;" Mr. Churton Collins begins his studies of "The Poetry and Poets of America;" and in this number appears the first installment of "The Son of Royal Langbrith," a new novel by Mr. W. D. Howells.

GUNTON'S MAGAZINE.

IN the January number of *Guntton's*, Mr. William Hemstreet discusses the evils of our present caucus system. His suggestions of reform largely depend, for their successful application, on the voluntary coöperation of the citizens. Each election district, for example, should have a sort of club, for each party, the mission of which should be the promotion of the caucus. Such clubs shall have the following objects:

"Promote universal attendance of the party at the caucus.

"Allow no office-holders to be delegates at conventions or members of a political committee.

"Neither nominate nor indorse candidates.

"Opposing the political walking delegate known as boss or leader.

"Call the caucus later than heretofore, when the responsible elements have returned from their vacations.

"Enforce secret balloting at the conventions."

ENGLAND AS JAPAN'S ALLY.

Mr. W. C. Jameson Reid, writing on "Asia in Transition," expresses the opinion that the Anglo-Japanese alliance, completed last year, has done much to undermine Russian influence in China and eastern Asia. Both England and Japan are seeking to maintain the "open door" in favor of equal rights to all nations alike.

"In fact, the alliance of British and Japanese interests in eastern Asia is embodied in a policy which threatens no one, and which, indeed, merely enacts in practice the principles to which all the great powers have hitherto signified their willingness to pledge themselves."

OUR ILL-MANNED CONSULAR AGENCIES.

In his article on the United States consular service, Prof. Edwin Maxey protests against the maintenance of a large number of "consular agencies," most of which are in the hands of foreigners,—“men who, as a rule, know little and care less about furthering American commercial interests, and who are, with very few exceptions, far more interested in obtaining a consular title and shield.” American citizenship is a prerequisite to holding office in this country; why should it not be so in the consular service?

THE INTERNATIONAL QUARTERLY.

THIS scholarly, solid review for the quarter December, 1903, to March, 1904, has fourteen thought-provoking papers by writers of international fame. Rollo Ogden, editor of the *New York Evening Post*, writes about "Political Satire," Louis Lucipia has a graphic picture of the Paris Commune of 1871, which is an excellent abridgment of his article on the same subject in the "Grande Encyclopédie;" W. J. Ashley, professor of economic history at Birmingham College, England, discusses "Early Teutonic History," and William Morton Payne, associate editor of the *Dial*, considers "The American Scholar." American scholarship, he says, has "its own peculiar coloring, no doubt, for it is the reflection of American activities and aims, but it can hold its own in any company. If its accidents are not altogether what the most thoughtful might wish them to be, if the ideal of knowledge has crowded too closely on the ideal of culture, and the material has left the spiritual hard-pressed for light and air, these are defects for the future to remedy, and to realize them that they may be remedied becomes one of the prime duties of the present day." It is the highest duty of the American scholar in our new century, Mr. Payne believes, "to uphold, not merely the faith in humanity to which these voices have borne testimony, but also the special faith that to our own nation has been given the mission to lead the world toward a true conception of the fellowship of man,—that the new world has, indeed, been divinely appointed 'to redress the balance of the old.'"

Prof. Edward Meyers, of the University of Halle, has an article on "Alexander the Great and Universal Monarchy;" Édouard Claparède, editor of the "Archives de Psychologie," and instructor at the University of Geneva, gives the progress of science regarding "The Consciousness of Animals," and Henry T. Finck, journalist, author, musical critic of the *New York Evening Post*, characterizes "Modern Orchestral Conductors." The orchestral conductor as we know him, says Mr. Finck, is a "peculiar product of the nineteenth century,—nay, of the Wagnerian revolution of the second half of that century." "Time was when the most important personage in the tone world was the operatic prima donna, or 'first lady.' But about a quarter of a century ago the orchestral conductor began, in European capitals, to assume an importance equal to that of the prima donna, and during the past decade he has actu-

ally been a more prominent personage than the opera singer."

"The Symbolical Drama," by Émil Faguet, professor of French literature; "Paris, 'Port-de-Mer,'" by André Lebon, French author; "The Economic Value of Advertising," by Victor Mataja, chief of the Austrian Labor Office and director of the statistical departments of the Ministry of Commerce at Vienna, and "The Free Trade Revolt in England," by Joseph B. Bishop, chief editor of the *New York Commercial Advertiser*, are other excellent articles. "Porfirio Diaz, Soldier and Statesman," by John W. Foster; "Trade Agreements," by Carroll D. Wright, and "Japan and the United States," by Kentaro Kaneko, member of the Japanese House of Peers, are quoted from as leading articles in this number.

THE CONTEMPORARY REVIEW.

IN the *Contemporary Review* for January, Mrs. Helen Bosanquet, in an article on "Physical Degeneration and the Poverty Line," declares that the statement that twelve millions of the British people are on the verge of starvation is not justified, as neither the areas investigated by Mr. Booth or Mr. Rowntree are typical of the whole country; and, in addition, Mrs. Bosanquet criticises the methods on which these gentlemen carried out their investigations. Moreover, Mrs. Bosanquet has her own idea of the remedy which is needed.

"It is a woman's remedy; for I believe this to be mainly a woman's problem. There is much to be done, indeed, in making the men take home their wages, if you can, instead of spending them in the public-houses; but even then your problem remains unsolved unless you have taught the women how to administer the money, and, above all, how to treat a baby. This, I venture to think, is the point toward which to direct our energies. Begin with the girls in school, and give them systematic and compulsory instruction in the elementary laws of health and feeding, the care of children, and the wise spending of money. Go on with the young women in evening classes and girls' clubs; and continue with the mothers wherever you can get at them."

LOVE AND PASSION.

Mr. George Barlow has a curious article on "The Higher Love," in which he shows how modern poetry has tended to spiritualize human passion instead of placing it in opposition to platonic love.

"For, to-day, we are able to discern that the flesh and the spirit are really differing sides of the same thing. They ought not to struggle against one another. The true function of the flesh is to express the spirit; in fact, as suggested above, to be gradually converted into spirit. Unless the soul, or the soul-body, has aural nerves, it cannot hear heavenly music; unless it possesses nerves of smell, it cannot inhale and enjoy the fragrance of heavenly roses. St. Paul hardly seems to have realized the full significance of his own doctrine of the 'spiritual body,' or, if he did so, most certainly his more fanatical followers have signally failed in that respect. It was, however, fully realized by Swedenborg, and the poets seem lately to have been teaching us that if earthly passion has to be expressed through an earthly body, heavenly passion must be expressed, more purely, and therefore more intensely, through a

heavenly body,—a body still material, but material in a finer and less perishable sense."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Of the other articles, the most interesting, but least quotable, is Mr. Auberon Herbert's "Story of an Old Race," as rewritten from their sculptured stone presentations of the human face. M. Jean Dormis has a paper on "Dialect Plays in Italy," and Mr. D. S. Cairns continues his articles on "Christianity in the Modern World."

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY AND AFTER.

AMONG the chief papers of note in the January number of the *Nineteenth Century* are those by Princess Kropotkin on "Cheap Books in Russia," by Dr. Arabella Denealy on "The Curse of Corsets," and by Sir Algernon West on "London Theaters, Past and Present."

Messrs. O. P. Law and W. T. Gill write from Ballarat to tell us what a white Australia means. They say it is not simply a question of color, but of difference of civilization. It is not so much the protection of wages that is sought as the protection of blood and the preservation of society. Purity of race is the one national ideal.

The natives of Tierra del Fuego excite the humane concern of Mr. W. S. Barclay. He pleads that England should use her influence to persuade the two powers to arrange for the settlement of the native races affected. He is especially warm in his eulogy of the Onas. They have no knowledge of any fermented drink, and twenty years of unscrupulous trading have failed to induce them to touch liquor. To offer spirits to an Ona is considered a deadly insult.

The new discoveries in electricity are described and commented upon by Antonia Zimmern, of Berlin. Mr. Ernest Rhys tells the story of Illtyd, a Welsh knight of the Sangreal. Sir Robert Anderson approves the home office bill for the continuous detention of habitual criminals. In the record of the month, Sir Wemyss Reid thinks the indignation of the free traders for Mr. Chamberlain's commission excessive, if not misplaced. Mr. Edward Dicey solemnly excommunicates from the true fold the Duke of Devonshire and his supporters. He says the leaders of the Liberal Unionists have now in fact, if not in name, attached themselves to the fortunes of the Liberal Home Rulers, and have thereby forfeited their title to the name of 'Unionists.'

THE FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW.

THE January *Fortnightly Review* makes a new departure by devoting a number of pages to reviewing miscellaneous foreign books, a feature which, the editor says, will be repeated in future issues.

TRUTH ABOUT THE CONGO.

Mr. H. R. Fox-Bourne contributes a useful summary of the present position of the Congo question. Mr. Fox-Bourne is strongly in favor of compelling the Congo government to refer the disputed questions to the Hague tribunal.

"The Congo State surely has no right to refuse its consent to their being referred to such a tribunal, and there is all the more reason for insisting on the reference in the fact that the Congo government, while pub-

lishing *ex parte* legal opinions in support of its assumed right, naively, in its apology of September 17, alleges that an adverse decision would 'tend consciously or unconsciously to the ruin of the whole of the conventional basin of the Congo.' It is not the Congo basin that would be ruined by an adverse decision, but the *concessionnaire* companies that have been set up therein, and the policy of their chief promoter, who is avowedly afraid to have their case submitted to an impartial inquiry."

WHAT HUNTING COSTS.

Mr. W. B. Woodgate, in his article on "Capping in the Hunting Field," gives some figures as to the cost which the average man pays for the joys of the chase. He estimates the cost to the hunting man at £100 (\$500) per horse per annum. The cost of the maintenance of a pack of hounds is £700 (\$3,500) per annum for each day per week that the hounds hunt.

"With some provincial packs, it may be economized to a lower figure, while in the best of the grass countries, where fields are large, damage to fences and gates considerable, where there is probably a wire fund, and where more expensive mounts are required for the hunt servants, the diurnal cost may be swelled to almost double the above average. And even this does not include personal expenses and equipage of the hunt, which fall anyhow upon the shoulders of the master himself."

Mr. Woodgate is strongly in favor of making the "alien immigrant" in the hunting field pay heavily for his day's sport.

THE NATIONAL REVIEW.

WHATEVER be said of the policy of the *National Review* in the fiscal controversy, there can be no doubt of its editor's enterprise in "running" the subject. On December 31, the January number was already in its third edition. For this, no doubt, Mr. Charles Booth's article, which we quote from elsewhere, is responsible. There is a useful illustrated article by Sir Henry Le Marchant on "The Government Measure for the Port of London."

THE MOST CORRUPT CITY IN THE WORLD.

Such is the title under which Mr. Gustavus Myers describes Philadelphia, which he declares is infinitely worse than New York.

"Within the last few years, Philadelphia has been robbed, directly and indirectly, if all the different, devious methods are considered, of an amount probably not less than one hundred million dollars, and possibly far more. Tweed's robberies were done thirty years ago, when civic ideals as applied to municipalities were less understood than now. Tweed was overthrown and sent to prison; and his associates fled to the four quarters of the earth. The Philadelphia thieves were never more powerful than they are to-day; the end of the domination is apparently still remote. Well may the world contemplate this 'City of Brotherly Love' with justifiable disgust and horror."

THE COTTON INDUSTRY IN ENGLAND.

Sir Matthew White Ridley writes on "Cotton, Cobden, and Chamberlain," with the purpose of showing that the condemnation which the representatives of the cotton industry passed on Mr. Chamberlain's proposal in last July misrepresented the views of a large num-

ber of masters and men. He maintains that even in the cotton trade there are certain features tending to show that free imports have materially arrested British progress in prosperity as compared with other nations.

THE DUKE OF DEVONSHIRE AS LIBERAL LEADER.

"An Elector," writing in the same review, professes to believe that the Duke of Devonshire has been playing for the part of leader of the Liberal party.

"Sir H. Campbell-Bannerman being out of the question, there remains only one other candidate—a seceder from the Unionist camp, the Duke of Devonshire. And it must be remembered that his chances are strengthened by the fact that the Rosebery and Campbell-Bannerman wings of what has wittily been called the 'Little Mary' party hate each other far more than they hate their opponent—Mr. Chamberlain. Neither will serve under the other; each is jealous of him; and the only possible solution in such a situation is to call in some third outsider who is committed to neither section. If he is no more than a name, so much the better, for under those circumstances each section of the party imagines that it can pull the wires."

THE MONTHLY REVIEW.

IN the January *Monthly Review* there is an article by Commendatore Felice Santini on "The Present Drift of Italian Policy," in which the writer declares

THE SPIRIT OF THE CONTINENTAL REVIEWS.

THE PRESENT POLITICAL SITUATION IN GERMANY.

AN unsigned article on political conditions of the moment in Germany is given the place of honor in the *Nouvelle Revue*. The writer believes that an immense and a more or less successful effort was made by the German people, on the occasion of the last June elections, to modify, in so far as was possible, the present political condition of their country, and he sets himself to prove how far this effort, made by the democracy of the empire, may modify, alter, and reform the old state of things. The government—which, of course, means the Emperor—seems so far to have realized the gravity of the problem as to have adopted a neutral attitude. The elections turned on four principal questions now agitating imperial Germany,—(1) the struggle against the Social Democracy; (2) the increase in the military budget; (3) financial reforms; and (4) the tariff problem. The result of the elections is, of course, well known,—the Social Democrats swept the field, and June 16 and June 25, 1903, will remain important dates in the history of German liberty.

At the present moment, political Germany is divided into two clear classes; the one consists of the Socialist pure and simple, and the other of the narrow Clerical group. But whereas in England the voice of the House of Commons is supreme, there, thanks to the painstaking and powerful efforts of Bismarck, spread over years, the Reichstag is for many practical purposes completely shorn of its theoretical power. "Germany possesses but the shadow of representative government, and entirely lacks the substance. The Reichstag cannot influence the choice of a chancellor, although he alone is responsible for the policy of the country, and the Ger-

man Parliament has even less influence concerning the nomination of cabinet ministers, who are chosen by the Emperor himself." In spite of these facts, the Socialist vote has produced and is likely to produce many remarkable results, and Germany, if those in power be not careful, may be on the eve of a great, if bloodless, revolution."

WHY THE MOSLEM RULES.

From an interesting article by Mr. D. G. Hogarth on "Crescent and Cross," we quote the following passage:

"In fanatical war, as in peace, the perfection of Moslem organization is displayed. A dangerous Christian community is reduced with disciplined brutality to the point of harmlessness, while other Christians, if they be not expected to make common cause with their co-religionists, go scot-free. The Catholic and Protestant Armenians owed it to the notoriety of their internecine jealousies, far more than to foreign protection, that hardly a hair of their heads was touched eight years ago. The Greek and Syrian communities were never in the slightest danger—*pro hac vice!* The last thing one has learned to expect of a militant Moslem is any assertion of himself. No wonder the British officer, to whom discipline is the first and greatest of virtues, wars to the ragged Ottoman infantryman, who is hardly conscious that he has any personal rights at all as against a superior,—any right to be paid, any right to be clothed or shod, any right to sleep, any right to discharge when his legal term of service shall be up. His is what Plato would have called discipline in the soul."

There is an admirably illustrated article by Mr. John Ward on "The Reconstruction of Karnak," and several other papers of interest.

POLITICAL AND SOCIAL EVOLUTION IN JAPAN.

The Spanish popular review, *Hojas Selectas* (Madrid and Barcelona), has an illustrated article on the political and social evolution of the Japanese Empire, by A. Garcia Llansó. Basing his observations on the recent national exposition at Osaka, Señor Llansó declares that the Land of the Rising Sun has already attained a degree of economic and political development which would be a surprise to the average Western student, despite all that has been written about Japanese progress during the past few years. He attributes the greater part of this advance to the excellent system of public instruction and the readiness with which the Japanese assimilate and make use of European and American inventions. The vigor of the Japanese, he declares, must find even wider field for the empire's industrial development. The political leaders are well launched on the career of national expansion.

INSURANCE AGAINST LOSS OF WORK.

A very meaty article on insurance against idleness appears in the December number of *Vragen des Tijds* (Amsterdam). In the matter of labor questions, the Dutch are probably more keen than the natives of any other European country except Great Britain, and this

idea of insurance against "worklessness" (to give a good literal rendering of the vaguely expressive Dutch word) is being pushed to the front very forcibly by the Freethought Democratic and Social Democratic parties. At this period of the year, worklessness is prevalent everywhere; therefore, the consideration of this article is very opportune. The two parties just mentioned contend that the workless should be supported out of the municipal funds, that the State should contribute to these funds, and that such funds should be created in places where they are at present non-existent. Naturally, the circumstances of the individual out of work should be inquired into, and a set of regulations drawn up in connection with this relief. The writer goes into the matter fully, and considers the various clauses of the proposed regulations.

VIVID RECOLLECTIONS OF THIERS.

By far the most important article in the second December number of the *Nouvelle Revue* is that in which is reviewed a remarkable book privately printed by Mlle. Doene, Thiers' sister-in-law, in which is told the secret history of the great French statesman's activities just before the end of the Franco-Prussian War. To a lover of France, these pages make painful reading. The story of how the gallant old republican, then a man of over seventy, made a tour of the European courts and chancelleries, in order to obtain better terms for his vanquished country, is indeed melancholy; everywhere he met with excuses which must have reminded him of the rich man and his feast. We are also given a very vivid account of his interview with Bismarck, when the two men discussed the final conditions of peace, and when Thiers wrested Belfort from the determined and ruthless victor.

GEORGE SAND AND HER INFLUENCE.

In the *Revue de Paris* for December and January, M. Maigrion has two long articles on George Sand, in which he shows how that extraordinary woman endeavored to carry out her plan of indoctrinating her contemporaries with her ideal of sweetness and poetry. M. Maigrion distinguishes between the two chief periods of George Sand's literary life, but he leaves us in no doubt as to the deplorable effect of such romances as "Indiana" and "Valentine." Indeed, he even narrates at some length a story of three—husband, wife, and lover—in a provincial town in 1837. The wife and the lover went quite crazy over George Sand, and their correspondence, which seems to have come into M. Maigrion's possession, shows so little originality that the ridiculous pair use, for the most part, the very language employed by the corresponding characters in "Indiana." The wife was only saved by the terribly sudden death of her little boy, which aroused her to a sense of her duties. George Sand's passionate elevation of love on a pedestal above everything else, and her intense assertion of individualism as against social laws and regulations and the pressure of ordinary public opinion, were seeds which found a terribly fertile soil in the general political and moral ferment of the thirties.

AN INTERESTING JOURNEY TO SPITZBERGEN.

A French explorer and scientist, M. Leclercq, describes, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, his recent journey to the island of Spitzbergen. This wonderful and interesting country has a relatively temperate climate,

apparently because there is nothing but sea and ice between it and the North Pole, and the sea is not a conductor of cold, as land is. At the same time, Spitzbergen is the home of gigantic glaciers, much bigger than those of the Alps. It is an inhospitable country, too, which produces little but mosses, while the fauna may be considered to be confined to the reindeer, the white bear, the seal, and the moose deer. It is winter for eight months of the year, but it is clear from M. Leclercq's account that it is an ideal country for consumptives, and he observes dryly that if any man were to be abandoned in the solitudes of Spitzbergen he would die only of hunger or of cold, not of anything else!

A REVOLUTIONARY ACADEMY OF FINE ARTS.

An account of a curious academy of fine arts, established during the revolutionary period in France, is contributed to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* by M. Lapauze. Most French artists in that time of ferment resolved to free themselves from academic tutelage. The old Royal Academy of Painting was suppressed by a decree of the Convention in August, 1793; it was really killed by the painter David, the leader of the rival society, the Commune of the Arts. David had entered the Convention as Deputy for Paris. The Commune of the Arts signalized its triumph by adding the comforting word "General" to its title, and it was commissioned by the Convention to destroy the Tombs of the Kings at St. Denis, while at the same time reserving all that might be of service to the arts. The Commune of the Arts soon dropped the title of "General," and became more and more academic. It was in its turn suppressed by the Convention, and was succeeded by the Popular and Republican Society of the Arts, which admitted everybody, without distinction, who chose to present himself. It decided, however, not to admit women,—an astonishing decision, in view of what Frenchwomen had already done in the arts.

A GERMAN ON AMERICAN AGRICULTURE.

A thoughtful and fair consideration of the conditions of agriculture in the United States, by Hans Fehlinger, appears in the *Sozialistische Monatshefte* (Berlin). Herr Fehlinger quotes figures showing the remarkable increase in the volume and wide distribution of American agricultural products. Germans, he says, have too long remained in ignorance of American agricultural power.

REVIEWS OF MORLEY'S "GLADSTONE."

The Dutch *De Gids* has an excellent review of John Morley's "Life of Gladstone," by Professor Byvanck, which is really a review of English history during Gladstone's life, and would form a good manual of English politics for Dutch students. In another article in *De Gids*, he treats the French writer, Émil Faguet, as a dramatic critic, and refers to the latter's appreciations of Gladstone and John Morley. *Nuova Antologia* (Rome) also contains a review of Morley's biography, and an appreciative article on Gladstone's relations with Italy, by Senator G. Finali.

WOMEN IN THE FRENCH COMEDY OF TO-DAY.

Charles des Granges, in *Le Correspondant*, considers the position and types of women in contemporary French comedy,—in Sardou, Donnay, Brieux, and other

dramatic authors,—and finds that, while there are many charming characters depicted, they are mostly "persons of intrigue, true as fragments, but false as wholes."

THE DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR ANNALS OF COLOMBIA.

The second volume of a collection of archives known as "The Diplomatic and Consular Annals of Colombia" has just been issued. *España Moderna* (Madrid) regards this as "much more than a collection of documents,—it is very valuable at the present juncture of international affairs." There is a chapter upon the general international relations of the country, one on the disputed questions of boundary between Colombia and Venezuela, Brazil, and Peru; another chapter contains documents and information on the American Conference of Mexico, the United States, and Cuba. There are also valuable documents relating to the whole matter of the Panama Canal.

THE NATIONAL AGRARIAN PROGRAMME IN ITALY.

The real cause of the national disease, the prostration of agriculture in Italy, is "the profound inequality between its wealth and its population." This is the text of an article in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome) by Maggiorino Ferraris. Political Italy, says this writer, "is established. Economic Italy is still in its infancy." The country has need of a politics of agriculture. All economic activity, and the prosperity of industry and commerce, depend on the readjustment of taxes and taxation and industrial burdens.

THE NOVEL OF THE DAY IN GERMANY.

The largest sale of a generation in Germany has been reached by the novel "Joern Uhl." While novels seldom attain a sale of more than 15,000 or 20,000 copies in the empire, this work has already sold to the number of 150,000 copies, and the public is still buying. "Joern Uhl" is a psychological study of a North German type, by Gustave Frenssen. The *Bibliothèque Universelle* (Lausanne) publishes an extended review of the book, by Kaethe Schirmacher, who has interviewed the author. It is, she says, "a product of the soil of Holstein, with the flavor of the soil, and is characteristically German. It has none of the piquancy, none of the subtlety, none of the disquieting analysis, none of the elegant skepticism, which characterize the French novel, but there is something very human, and at the same time, nobly and exaltedly human, in this somber history of a peasant's tormented soul."

PRESENT-DAY RELIGION IN JAPAN.

A number of the Japanese reviews are giving attention to the question of the national religious consciousness. A writer in the *Shinjin* combats the general opinion that the Japanese are indifferent to religion. At heart, he says, every Japanese is strongly and sincerely religious, but side by side with this sentiment is love of country and the passion for its welfare. The Japs also reverence science so much that it is not easy to convert them to an unthinking faith. An article taking up this thesis, to prove that there is no warfare between Christianity and science, appears in another Japanese review, *Chuo Koron*, from the pen of the Abbé E. Ligneul. The *Tsuyoku Shukyo dan* also has an article which is a symposium of definitions of religion, by a well-known Japanese. The editor of this publication gives the general tone of the definitions when he says that the intelligent Japanese considers religion only as some specific for women and children.

A SENSATIONAL COLLECTION OF LETTERS.

One of the books of the day in Berlin is a collection of letters entitled "War Letters of 1870," written daily by General Kretschmann to his wife during the Franco-Prussian War. In his review of this book in *La Revue*, Henri Paris quotes some of the passages which show the bitter feeling of General Kretschmann toward the French. The German commander declares in one epistle that "the French people is composed of monkeys and fools, and among these one may find all sorts of rascals." In another, in which he complains bitterly of the attacks upon the invaders by French peasants who "did not wait for the sanction of a uniform," General Kretschmann declares, "If we had occupied Paris [in place of the departments], had put a good guard in each house, and had shot every one who opened his mouth, the world would now be entirely at peace." The French critic of this book declares that General Kretschmann "must have been thinking, not of the French, but of the Hessians and Bavarians." All those who know the Germany of to-day, he says, "understand that specimens of such a detestable spirit are becoming more and more rare."

WHAT MUST SPAIN DO TO BE SAVED?

A very sad and somber picture of the present condition of Spain in the evolution of civilization is presented by Manuel Sates Ferré, in *España Moderna* (Madrid). Spain, he says, does not know how to elevate herself to the level of other nations, and, without an inspiring ideal, without real modern culture, she finds herself disorganized. How shall she bring about her economic and political regeneration? Senor Ferré believes this will be exceedingly difficult unless there be an entire reorganization of the race, "an organization based on the fundamental rights of the individual, on liberty and equality, and on the obligation of each to fulfill his duties, together with the privilege of exercising his rights without oppression."

THE RAILROAD STRIKE IN AUSTRIA.

A careful consideration of the recent strike of railroad employees in Victoria, Australia, and its "suppression by act of Parliament," is contributed to *L'Humanité Nouvelle* (Paris), by Iann Karmor. This writer believes the men completely justified in their strike, and attributes their defeat to the tyranny of the government and the efforts of the reactionary press. All the "vested interests" were against the strikers,—even the Church opposed them. The famous coercion bill, which reduced salaries on the state-owned railroads, set limits to the working hours, curtailed the voting privilege, and proscribed the trade-union, was too much for the men, and the strike was "called off." Returning to work, "in full confidence that they would be treated with justice by the government," the men were met with "a terrible response."

"The government reserved to itself the absolute right to abrogate, wholly or in part, all rights of compensation, all pensions already earned by those who returned to their posts, and announced that it would compel every employee to sign an agreement to deliver himself up, body and soul, to the strike investigation commission, which had full powers to retain or expel any one, and to do whatsoever seemed good to it."

Mr. Karmor regards the failure of the strike as a serious blow to the cause of Australian labor progress. It was chiefly due, he claims, to the "capitalistic journals, which deceived the government and the public."

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

A FEW OF THE NEWEST ART BOOKS.

THE first of a series of books to be devoted to American art history is Mr. Lorado Taft's "History of American Sculpture" (Macmillan). The editor of the series, Prof. John C. Van Dyke, states that this initial volume is chiefly made up of original material gathered at first-hand and here presented for the first time. The work has been done by an expert,—himself a master of

the sculptor's craft,—and is the more valuable because written from the artist's point of view. It is significant that more than one-half of the volume is assigned to contemporary sculptors, while one-fourth suffices to relate the history of the art in America prior to 1850. The book is beautifully printed, and is embellished by more than one hundred photographic illustrations of masterpieces described in the text. A briefer treatment of the subject, with

special reference to the personalities of several of our present-day sculptors, is to be found in Mr. Charles H. Caffin's "American Masters of Sculpture" (Doubleday, Page & Co.). This, also, is illustrated from photographs of the works of these American sculptors, and naturally Mr. Taft's selection is partly duplicated in the smaller book. In either work, such sculptors as St. Gaudens, Macmonnies, Ward, French, and Barnard are treated in special chapters, Mr. Caffin attempting to do for these men what he recently did for representative painters in his "American Masters of Painting," a group of appreciations that has had a notable popular success.

The purpose in Prof. John C. Van Dyke's lectures on "The Meaning of Pictures" (Scribners) is to set forth the various points of view from which pictures are estimated, so as to enable the intelligent student of art to judge of pictures, not by some arbitrary standard of his own erection, but in the light of the artist's intention. Professor Van Dyke's earlier works on art topics have contributed materially to the same end,—the cultivation of a tolerant spirit in art judgments. The subjects treated in the present volume are "Truth in Painting," "Individuality; or, The Personal Element," "Imagination of the Artist," "Pictorial Poetry," "The Decorative Quality," and "Subject in Painting."

Dr. Charles Waldstein's little book, "Art in the Nineteenth Century" (Macmillan), deals with the literary arts, music, sculpture, painting, architecture, and decoration. These topics are hardly more than touched upon in the space of a little more than one hundred pages assigned to them, the treatment having been

originally intended as introductory to a series of university-extension lectures.

"The American Art Annual" (New York, 226 West Fifty-eighth Street) contains convenient *résumés* of the material progress made in painting, sculpture, illustrating, decorating, and architecture. There are price lists of important sales of art objects, reports of galleries and societies, lists of buildings erected and of statues unveiled, and directories of artists, art teachers, workers in applied arts, lecturers and writers on art topics, and dealers in works of art,—all in all, a capital handbook for the purpose.

"Botticelli," by A. Streeter, is an addition to the series of "Great Masters in Painting and Sculpture" (Macmillan). Like its predecessors in the series, this volume is tersely written, compact, and well stored with information concerning the life and works of the great Florentine painter. Numerous reproductions of the paintings serve as illustrations; a bibliography is provided; and an appendix contains catalogues of Botticelli's works, and of those of his followers, arranged according to the galleries in which they are to be found.

"The Genius of J. M. W. Turner," edited by Charles Holme (John Lane), is an attempt to gather from numerous sources a representative selection of Turner's drawings, paintings, and engravings. The result is a sumptuously printed array of the great English artist's masterpieces. Some of these are reproduced in color, and all are most effectively printed. To the text, Mr. Robert de la Sizeranne contributes a paper on "The Oil Paintings of Turner," while Mr. Walter Shaw Sparrow writes on "Turner's Monochromes and Early Water Colors" and "The Later Water Colors," and Mr. C. F. Bell treats of "Turner and His Engraver."

"The Art Album" (John Lane) is a collection of one hundred representative plates from the *International Studio*. Many of these pictures are very interesting; but why so many of them should be brought together in a volume and printed without captions or the slightest suggestion as to originals, passes the comprehension of the Philistine mind.

HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY.

Ex-Secretary Long's two-volume work on "The New American Navy" (The Outlook Company) reveals a degree of progress in that arm of the national defense that can hardly be appreciated by any who are unfamiliar with conditions of a generation ago. The record of the transformation wrought between the close of the Civil War and the battle of Manila Bay is the more impressive because the great mass of Americans had never fully realized that their navy of the sixties,—a navy that had been glorified in song and story by the deeds of a Farragut and a Porter,—had really become obsolete, and had been replaced by an aggregation of fighting-machines which alone could make possible such a victory as Dewey's, or that of the captains at Santiago. Ex-Secretary Long tells, in his book, just how the change was accomplished, and how the magnificent



MR. LORADO TAFT.

service of the present day has been developed. It is a story that reflects only credit on the American people, and is well worth the telling. The author's account of the Spanish-American War, which occurred during his term as head of the Navy Department, has all the value of an intimate first-hand narrative. Both volumes are amply illustrated.

Dr. Guy Carleton Lee, of the Johns Hopkins University, disclaims responsibility for the title of his new book, "The True History of the Civil War" (Lippincott). Taking the word "true" in the title, which the publishers have selected as best describing the book,

EX-SECRETARY JOHN D. LONG.

to mean simply unprejudiced and non-sectional, Dr. Lee accepts it as a fair characterization of his point of view, but he is far from asserting that his is the only true history of the war that has been written. The narrative is indeed impartial and free from sectional bias. It is a popular and not in the strict sense a scholarly work. That is to say, it deals rather in general statements of the results of engagements and movements than in exact or exhaustive analysis of facts. It is, however, a well-written and serviceable account of the war between the States.

In "The Shenandoah Valley and Virginia, 1861-1865," by Sanford C. Kellogg, U. S. A. (New York: Neale Publishing Company), we have a careful study of some of the most important military operations of the Civil War. It is a book that will be best appreciated by military students and by veterans of the opposing armies.

Mr. Edward Stanwood's work, in two volumes, on "American Tariff Controversies in the Nineteenth Century" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), while written frankly from the protectionist point of view, summarizes debates in a way to give no free-trader cause for complaint of unfairness. In fact, the book is well stocked with materials on each side of the question. It contains original discussions on the constitutionality of protection, the protective character of the first tariff, the situation after the close of the Civil War, and the industrial upheaval in the last quarter of the nineteenth century, and one chapter heading,—"The Tariff as a Local Issue,"—suggests a famous remark of an unsuccessful candidate for the Presidency in comparatively recent times. Mr. Stanwood is the author of "A History of the Presidency,"—a work that has been a standard authority for many years.

American monetary history is well represented in recent volumes of the University of Chicago's "Decennial Publications" (University of Chicago Press). In this series, Miss S. P. Breckinridge is the author of "Legal Tender" in its constitutional and legal aspects. Finding the origin of the power in the prerogative of the English crown, Miss Breckinridge traces its subsequent history in Great Britain, in the American colonies, in the confederation, in the constitutional convention of 1787, and in the United States to the present time. An-

other volume of the series, "A History of the Greenbacks," by Wesley C. Mitchell, treats the subject from both the historical and the economic point of view. The chapter on wages includes a detailed analysis of the "Aldrich Report" in comparison with the material brought out by the census of 1890. There is a chapter on "The Greenbacks and the Cost of the Civil War," attempting to show to what extent the paper issues increased the Government's expenses.

The latest issue in the "Cambridge Historical Series" (Macmillan) is a volume on "The Expansion of Russia," by Francis Henry Skrine, an Englishman of the Indian civil service (retired), who sees the significance of Russia's advance Indiaward, believes that British policy with regard to the Eastern question has, as a rule, been one of "undignified protest and panic," destroying England's legitimate influence in Turkey, Persia, and China, and that a *modus vivendi* should be sought with Russia which would embrace both commercial and political interests.

Michael Davitt, the well-known Irish agitator, has found a new theme in the persecutions of the Jews in Russia. His book, "Within the Pale" (A. S. Barnes & Co.), gives the full

story of the Kishineff massacres, as gathered by Mr. Davitt on a tour of personal investigation in Russia, and sets forth opposing views on the anti-Semitic question as held by representative Russian officials and others. The main purpose of the book, however, is to make a plea for the objects of the Zionist movement.

A little volume of "Bismarck's Letters to His Wife," trans-

MICHAEL DAVITT.

lated by Armin Harder (Appleton), contains the few letters, dated from the seat of war, 1870-71, which were omitted from the Bismarck correspondence published three years ago in Berlin. It was thought that these omitted letters had been destroyed, but it now turns out that they had been preserved by the chancellor's wife in a locked casket, apart from the others. This casket was not opened at the time of her death, and its contents remained unknown until something over a year ago. Now that the letters have been published, one sees clearly that the chancellor's wife may well have prized them as mementos of the most strenuous period in Bismarck's career. They are intimate, family letters, and possibly the widow thought that so much at least of the great man's writings might properly be kept from the eyes of the world.

As a companion volume to "The Martyrdom of an Empress," the biographer of the late Empress Elizabeth has written "A Keystone of Empire" (Harpers), being the story of the life of Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria. It is a vivacious picture of the oldest reigning monarch in Europe that is here presented. Francis Joseph's career has not been free from pathetic incidents. Some details of the Emperor's private life are now printed for the first time.

For fourteen years a reporter and correspondent on the staff of the New York Sun, the late Wilbur J. Chamberlin was ranked by his colleagues among the ablest and most clear-sighted of American newspaper men, and that is saying a great deal. It is little in the way of literary remains that such a man can leave behind him when called from the scene of active duty. In the case of Mr. Chamberlin, his letters from China, written to wife and sister while under commission from the Sun during the Boxer uprising of 1900 and the international complications following that episode, have been collected in a volume entitled "Ordered to China" (Stokes). This book is an unconscious revelation of some of the qualities that caused Mr. Chamberlin to be held in such high esteem by every public man with whom he came in contact.

THE LATE WILBUR J. CHAMBERLIN.

Mr. Justin McCarthy's "Portraits of the Sixties" (Harpers) is a series of personal reminiscences and pen portraits of eminent Englishmen whose star was in the ascendant forty years ago. So well known are Mr. McCarthy's qualities as a biographer and raconteur, from earlier publications on similar lines, that further characterization of his writing is quite unnecessary. The present volume is as easy, graceful, and brilliant as its predecessors.

"Gossip from Paris During the Second Empire" (Appleton) is the title given to a volume made up of letters written to London newspapers during the years 1864-69 by Anthony B. North Peat, who was at the time an attaché of the French Government. The material was selected and arranged for publication by Mr. A. R. Waller. It is useful as a journalistic history of the period.

BOOKS ON SPECULATIVE SCIENCE.

Dr. Thomas Hunt Morgan has attempted to restate the Darwinian theory in the light of the very latest scientific discoveries and conceptions. His book, "Evolution and Adaptation" (Macmillan), is a re-examination of the whole question of adaptation. In his study of regenerative phenomena, he says, he has come to the conclusion that the Darwinian hypothesis is "entirely inadequate to account for the origin of the power to regenerate." How much of the theory as originally formulated by Darwin can be retained in the light of the latest verdict of science? Most biologists of the present day, Dr. Morgan believes, "while professing in a general way to hold to the [Darwinian] theory, have many reservations and doubts."

A year or so ago, there appeared in the *Fortnightly Review* (and the *Independent*) a paper by Alfred Russel Wallace on "Man's Place in the Universe," which excited a good deal of comment. Mr. Wallace has amplified this paper into a fair-sized volume (McClure, Phillips). The author was codiscoverer, with Darwin,

of the law of natural selection, and his position in the world of science entitles him to a most respectful hearing. When, therefore, he marshals a mass of data from astronomy, biology, and geology to prove that earthly man is the only living and thinking being in the whole universe, we realize that modern thought on man's place and destiny is by no means beyond criticism and revolution. Mr. Wallace holds that we and our world are the center of the universe, and that nowhere else but in the center of the universe could conditions exist that would produce the result we find in man and his earth. Several very interesting astronomical charts add to the mechanical excellence of the book.

The advance in scientific discovery, and the changing conceptions of physical cause and effect, which have so widely extended man's knowledge during the past quarter of a century, are ably and graphically presented in a new volume entitled "New Conceptions in Science," by Carl Snyder (Harpers). It is a sort of "taking stock," which is done for the layman rather than for the technical expert. The latest verdict of science on the problems of astronomy, physics, chemistry, psychology, and electricity is given in trenchant style.

RECENT RELIGIOUS AND ETHICAL BOOKS.

The law and process of Christian conviction in the individual consciousness is the subject of a series of connected metaphysical essays, collected under the title "Spiritual Evolution or Regeneration," by R. C. Doug-

ALFRED RUSSEL WALLACE.

lass (Lee & Shepard). Mr. Douglass was formerly editor of *Unity*, a metaphysical magazine published in Kansas City. He is evidently a close Bible student, and certainly an independent thinker.

Dr. George Herbert Palmer's book, "The Field of Ethics," marked out the place which ethics occupies

among the sciences. His new volume, "The Nature of Goodness" (Houghton, Mifflin), examines the actual ethical problems. Dr. Palmer, who is Alford Professor of Philosophy in Harvard University, ventures to establish a clear doctrine with regard to the nature of goodness, distinguishing four primal differences, to each of which a special chapter is devoted.

A series of baccalaureate addresses by Dr. Charles F. Thwing, president of Western Reserve University, has been published in book form under the general title "A Liberal Education and a Liberal Faith" (Baker & Taylor). These sermons are "endeavors to interpret the relations of education and religion, with the purpose of making education more nobly religious, religion more wise, and both more liberal."

The story of Amram and Jocheved, and of Moseh their son, the Moses of the Old Testament Bible, told from the standpoint of a Jewish student of ancient Egyptian history,—this is what Dr. H. Pere'ra Mendes has given us in his book "In Old Egypt: A Story About the Bible, but Not in the Bible" (Stokes). The book is illustrated by Mabel L. Humphrey.

An English translation of S. M. Dubnow's "Jewish History, an Essay in the Philosophy of History," has been issued by the American Jewish Publication Society. Mr. Dubnow occupies a very prominent position in Russian-Polish-Jewish literature as an historian and an acute critic.

"Joy and Power" (Crowell), three messages with one meaning, by Henry van Dyke, are sermons with the same sane, healthy philosophy and crisp, delightful English style. They are entitled "Joy and Power," "The Battle of Life," and "The Good Old Way," and all contain the kindly optimism characteristic of the man who utters them.

A new book on the founder of Methodism, entitled "The Real John Wesley" (Jennings & Pye), has been written by William Henry Meredith, author of "Pillimages to Methodist Shrines." The book is not intended to be a biography, but to furnish the general reader with a series of "vivid pen pictures of John Wesley as he really was and as he appeals to us in this new century." All the many activities of the great churchman's life are considered.

Some remarkable examples of religious devotion and self-sacrifice are furnished by the history of the part played by the native Chinese Christians in the Boxer uprising in 1900. A book full of the most thrilling incidents of this martyrdom, by Luella Miner, entitled "China's Book of Martyrs" (Jennings & Pye), tells the whole story of the siege of Peking, and chronicles lives and deaths of heroism which are certainly inspiring. The author was in the Chinese capital during the siege by the Boxers, and she writes with a swing and a vividness that carry conviction.

"Sunny Memories of Three Pastors," with a sermon of essays by Dr. William Elliot Griffis, is the latest effort from the pen of the veteran preacher and writer, whose name has been so well known in magazine literature for the past two decades. The book is printed for the author at Ithaca.

One of a series of "Talks to College Men," now being issued by Revells, is entitled "Getting One's Bearings." It is by Dr. Alexander McKenzie, and consists of half a dozen crisp essays on character, and the things that mold men.

"The Drama of the Apocalypse" (Macmillan), in relation to the literary and political circumstances of its

time, is a careful study of the Book of the Revelation, by Frederic Palmer, author of "Studies in Theologic Definition."

SOME NEW NATURE BOOKS.

"There are as many forms and kinds of gardens as there are persons who have gardens; and this is one reason why the garden appeals to every one, and why it may become the expression of personality. You need follow no man's plan. The simplest garden is likely to be the best, merely because it is the expression of a simple and teachable life." These and other helpful bits of advice are given by Prof. L. H. Bailey, of Cornell University, in his charming introduction to a charming new book, "How to Make a Flower Garden" (Doubleday, Page). This handsomely illustrated volume is made up of a series of practical articles on flower garden-making by people who know, most of the articles having already appeared in *Country Life in America*, of which Professor Bailey is editor. Besides the purely garden lore, W. C. Egan tells how he built his country home with especial reference to how he made his landscape garden.

"The Moth Book" (Doubleday, Page), a popular guide to a knowledge of the moths of North America, has been prepared by Dr. W. J. Holland, director of the Carnegie Museum, Pittsburg. Dr. Holland's "Butterfly Book," which appeared a few years ago, was so popular that he and his publishers assert that they were simply compelled to issue this second work. "The Moth Book" is illustrated in color.

Prof. George Francis Atkinson, of Cornell University, probably knows all there is to be known about mushrooms and fungi in general. His studies and latest investigations are now published (Holt) in a finely illustrated volume, with many colored plates. There are two hundred and thirty pictures from photographs by the author, and the volume is further enriched by a number of recipes for cooking mushrooms, by Mrs. Sarah Tyson Rorer, and a study of the chemistry and toxicology of these fungi, by J. F. Clark.

During eighteen years of hermit life, Mason A. Walton ("the Hermit of Gloucester") has discovered that "the white-footed mouse is dumb, and communicates with its species by drumming with its toes; that the woodthrush conducts a singing-school for the purpose of teaching its young how to sing; that the chickadee can count," and many other interesting facts. These he has recounted in a book full of pictures under the title "A Hermit's Wild Friends" (Dana Estes).

A summer in a German castle, described with graceful touches of nature philosophy of the "Elizabeth and Her German Garden" kind, is "From Broom to Heather" (Jennings & Pye), by James Taft Hatfield. It is a pretty little volume mechanically, copiously illustrated.

Stories of humble nature life, "to illustrate the great primal truth that wherever there is life there are problems confronting it," with the well-known name of Anna Botsford Comstock on the title-page, have been published under the title, "Ways of the Six-Footed" (Ginn). The illustrations are charmingly appropriate.

Lord Lister has written a brief introduction to Stephen Paget's "Experiments on Animals" (Putnam). The work is for professional readers.

"The Insect Folk" (Ginn), by Margaret Warner Morley, is one of a series of illustrated nature books for children, with suggestions for study by the little people.

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

Russia and Japan. The first week in February saw the shifty diplomacy and resentful impatience of Russia and Japan converge to war with startling and dramatic swiftness. On February 6, the Japanese minister to the Court of St. Petersburg, Count Kurino, with the entire legation, was withdrawn by his government, with the explanation that Japan was dissatisfied with Russia's dilatory course in the negotiations, and that the former must now take such independent measures as she thought best for safeguarding her interests. At once, Russia recalled Baron de Rosen, her minister to the Mikado's empire, and his suite. The last Japanese note to Russia had been sent on January 8, with an earnest exhortation for a prompt reply. Russia claimed that her reply was in Tokio at the time of Japan's formal severance of diplomatic relations, but it does not appear to have been officially presented, although the Japanese Government was undoubtedly acquainted with the purport of the message. Since midsummer, there had been a serious diplomatic divergence between the two powers. By October 30, the situation had become so acute that Japan considered the use of the cable necessary. Throughout these months of negotiation, Japan's replies had been sharp, to the point, and immediate; Russia's, courteous, vague, hair-splitting, dilatory. And in the meantime, thousands of Russian soldiers were hurrying east to the Yalu, and Port Arthur's naval docks were rapidly approaching a condition of preparedness.

Japan's Last Stand. A few days after the rupture of diplomatic relations, each government made public formal reviews of the negotiations, with the purpose of showing its opponent to be the aggressor. Japan insisted on the recognition of her preponderance in northern as well as southern Korea, on her right to use Korea for strategical purposes, and on

Russia's agreement to respect the independence and integrity of the Chinese Empire, that term to include Manchuria. The last note from Russia officially received by the Tokio government, on January 6 last, met the vexed question of Manchuria with a proposal to insert the following clause in a Russo-Japanese agreement:

The recognition by Japan of Manchuria and its littoral as outside her sphere and interest, while Russia within the limits of that province would not impede Japan or any other power in the enjoyment of rights and privileges acquired by it under existing treaties with China.

But this concession was coupled with conditions that there should be a neutral zone in Korea, just south of the Yalu River, and that Korean territory should not be employed by Japan for strategical purposes; further, there was no mention at all of China's territorial integrity in Manchuria. This note of January 6, with Russia's further delay, was the rock on which the negotiations split.

Japan's Swift Action. The veteran war leaders of Japan had been preparing, throughout the months of vexatious negotiations, an exact plan of campaign on sea and land. When the rupture came, on February 6, Japan's first blow was delivered with such lightning-like swiftness that the world held its breath. The Associated Press representatives and other great news organizations were informed by Japan that there would be a rigid embargo on all dispatches for the space of three days. The main Japanese fleet, under Vice-Admiral Togo, consisting of six battleships, four armored cruisers, six commerce-destroyers, and a number of torpedo craft, promptly and quietly left Sasebo, a naval station in the Korean Straits, and made for Port Arthur. In the harbor of that stronghold was the flower of Russia's sea power,—seven battleships, all of that class in Asiatic waters; one armored cruiser,

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THE RUSSIAN BATTLESHIP "RETIVIZAN."

(The *Retvizan* and *Czarevitch*, torpedoed by the Japanese at Port Arthur, were the two most powerful vessels of the Czar's Eastern fleet. The *Retvizan* was a first-class battleship of 12,700 tons and 18½ knots' speed. She was built at Cramp's shipyard, in Philadelphia, in 1900.)

and five commerce-destroyers. The Russian vessels lay in the outer harbor, an advance guard of torpedo-boat sentries being stationed five miles in the offing. Admiral Togo's formidable squadron appeared on the scene between 11 and 12 o'clock on the night of the 8th. From all reports, the encounter came as a surprise to the Russian commander, Admiral Stark. The heavy vessels of the Japanese attacked with vigor, and in the fury of the battle Admiral Togo's torpedo boats seem to have slipped into the harbor in a magnificently brilliant dash at the big battleships of Russia. In spite of the rattling fusillade of three-pounders and rapid-fire artillery, these hornet-like vessels launched a number of torpedoes, and struck the *Czarevitch* and *Retvizan*, the heaviest battleships of the Czar's Eastern power, and the *Pallada*, a protected cruiser of 6,600 tons. The damaged ships were sunk in or near the entrance to the inner harbor. As the fire from the powerful guns of the Port Arthur fortifications became heavy, the Japanese fleet sheered off until morning.

A Second Attack.

Next day, February 9, about noon, Admiral Togo's fleet again advanced to the attack, and after an engagement lasting an hour, effected serious damage to the Russian battleship *Poltava* and the cruisers *Novik*, *Diana*, and *Askold*, all of which were penetrated by shells on or below the water-line. After the engagement, the Japanese fleet steamed

south, apparently content with the damage inflicted on the enemy and unwilling to risk their mightiest ships in a further artillery duel with the guns of Port Arthur. The Japanese commander reported to his government the loss of only 4 men killed and 54 wounded in the two engagements, and says that none of his ships were damaged in any degree that would interfere with their efficiency. Viceroy Alexieff, in his report of the fight, mentions only 62 men killed and wounded on the ships, and 4 in the coast batteries.

Another Japanese Victory.

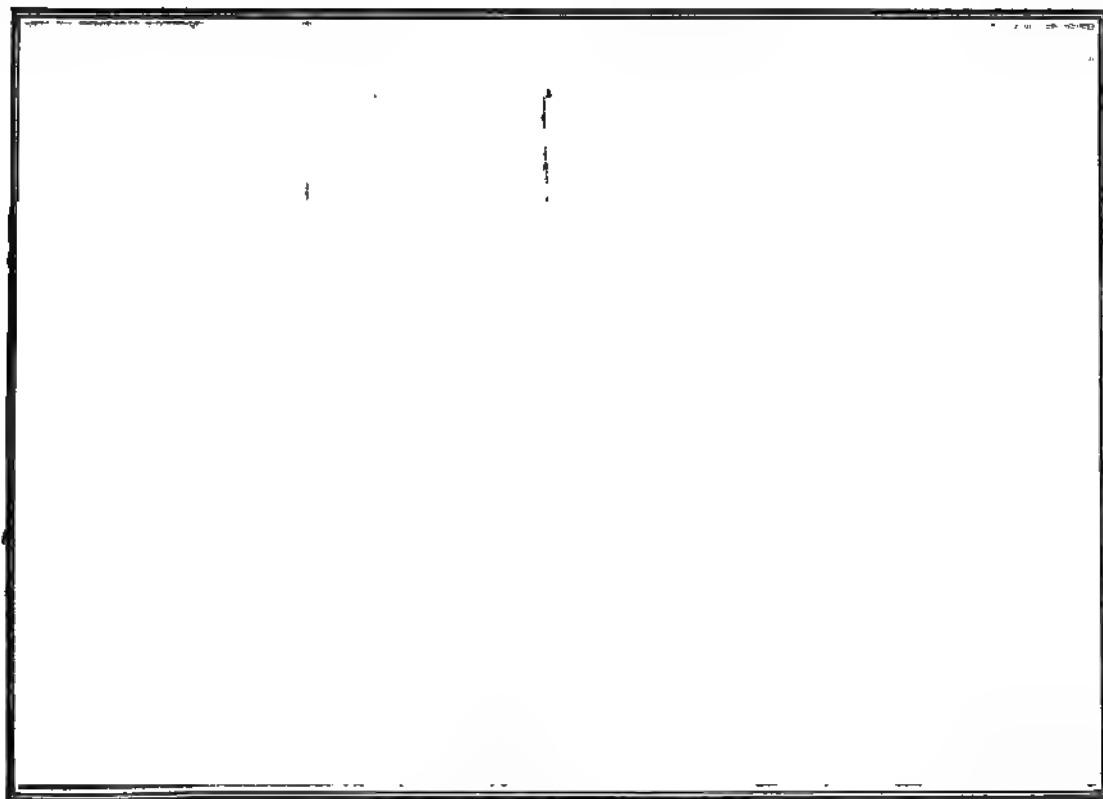
While the world was in its first wondering over this unexpected feat of arms, came the news of still another Japanese naval success. On the afternoon of February 8, a fleet of five Japanese cruisers and torpedo craft, under Admiral Uriu, arrived at Chemulpho, Korea, with 2,500 soldiers, and landed them without opposition from the Russian cruisers *Variag* and *Koriets*, which were lying in Chemulpho harbor. The following day, the Japanese consul at Chemulpho conveyed from Admiral Uriu a message to the Russian commander that he must bring his vessels out of the harbor and fight or be attacked where he lay. The *Variag* and *Koriets* steamed out of the harbor, and after a brave struggle against the greatly superior Japanese force, both Russian vessels were destroyed, with a loss, in killed and wounded, reported to be over five hundred.

Result of the Sea Fight. If only a small proportion of the heavy Russian fighting ships damaged at Port Arthur are *hors de combat*,—and the naval yards there are supposed to be equipped for only the simplest repairs.—Japan's preponderance over Russia in Asiatic waters has been finally established, for this war, by these brilliant operations. At the outset, Russia had seven battleships, not counting the *Oslabya*, which was on its way to the Yellow Sea; four armored cruisers, and the *Dmitri Donskoi* coming, and fourteen unarmored cruisers, with ten torpedo boats and destroyers. Japan's battleships numbered only seven, but they averaged 20 per cent. heavier than the Russians; her seven armored cruisers were, on the average, easily a match for Russia's ships of the same class, and she had fourteen unarmored cruisers, with seventeen destroyers and sixty torpedo boats. With three of the Czar's battleships damaged and five cruisers crippled or destroyed, the balance of power is heavy indeed on the Mikado's side. Japan's equipment and geographical advantages

A JAPANESE TORPEDO BOAT, THE TYPE OF VESSEL THAT DISABLED THE GREAT SHIPS OF THE RUSSIAN FLEET.

(One of six 31-knot vessels built for the Japanese Government in England.)

emphasize her preponderance on the Eastern seas. Her ships and guns are new, and of the best type; her fleet has been drilled indefatigably in preparation for the conflict that was



THE JAPANESE BATTLESHIP "SHIKISHIMA."

(One of the six heavy-weight battleships of Japan's navy. The *Shikishima* is a first-class battleship of over 15,000 tons and 18 knots' speed. It was this type of vessel, more powerful than any in the Russian fleet, that was used by Admiral Togo to keep the Russian ships and land batteries busy while his torpedo craft made their historic dash.)

A BIRD'S-EYE DIAGRAM OF PORT ARTHUR, THE LIAU-TONG PENINSULA, KOREA, AND THE KOREAN STRAITS.

considered by most Japanese as inevitable. Her gunners are expert, and the finest young officers in her navy are clamoring for the honor of torpedo-boat service, an arm of the navy for which the Japanese sailor seems to have an especial genius, as shown in the Chinese War as well as in the recent Port Arthur fight. Most important of all considerations, in case of a protracted naval conflict, is Japan's geographical advantage—her home ports being only a day or so from the scene of action—and her fortified bases and naval docks. Her seven naval stations are close at hand, one of them, Kure, on the Inland Sea, is practically impregnable, and she has fifteen docks able to accommodate large ships of war. Her final reinforcements, the two cruisers pur-

chased from Argentina, have finished their journey from Italy, her commerce-destroyers are daily making captures of rich prizes, her naval prestige has been immensely enhanced by the proof at Port Arthur that it was not merely Chinese weakness that won the battle of the Yalu, and the *esprit de corps* of her army and navy is at concert pitch.

*The Torpedo
as an Arm.*

The practical efficiency of torpedo boats and destroyers has been seriously questioned in recent years, and it is interesting to see Japan, the youngest member of the world-powers, only yesterday awakened from centuries of slumber, teach the navies of the world about all they know of the real use of this arm of naval warfare. In the Chinese War, the Japanese navy made their torpedo play count heavily in evening up their disadvantage in the lack of a single battleship, though this evidence of the torpedo's effectiveness needed to be further proved by some work against a white man's navy. The Port Arthur fight has been studied by thousands of naval officers on this account, and the general opinion is that in daring hands the torpedo boat has all the offensive powers claimed for it by its advocates. Battleships have discarded the use of the wire netting used in the early development of defense against torpedo attacks on account of the cumbersome nature of the netting and the long time required to raise and lower it. They rely now on keeping the torpedo boat at her distance by means of a hail of shot from one-pounder, three-pounder, and larger rapid-fire guns; for the automobile torpedoes, that disabled the *Czarevitch* and the *Retvizan*, have an extreme range of about a mile. The power is compressed air, and the velocity thirty-five miles.

GIVING HIM THE JIU-JITSU.—From the *World* (New York).
(The jiu-jitsu is the *coup de grace* of the Japanese wrestlers.)

CHEMULPHO, ON THE WEST COAST OF KOREA.

(The scene of the destruction of the Russian cruiser *Variag* and gunboat *Kortez* by a Japanese squadron.)

*Next Moves
of the War.* It is generally assumed that the initial successes of the Japanese will throw the Russians on the defensive, so far as sea fighting is concerned, and that the nucleus of the Czar's fleet will not venture far from under the protection of Port Arthur's guns. This may be a premature assumption. On the 15th of February it was learned that the second Russian fleet,—four powerful cruisers, three of them armored,—which was supposed to be ice-bound in Vladivostok, had cut its way out a week before and was harrying the west coast of Japan. It

should be easy, however, for the Japanese to prevent the junction of this fleet, commanded by Admiral Stachelberg, with the main division at Port Arthur, even if it be not destroyed. At any rate, the Japanese transports have had an easy task in disembarking troops in Korea. Within a few days after the opening of the war, nineteen thousand soldiers were landed at Chemulpho, the seaport of Seoul. Seoul, the capital of Korea, has been strongly occupied by Japan, and there is no doubt that every available man of the half-million Japan can raise in an emergency will be

THE RUSSIAN CRUISER "VARIAG."

(The fine American-built cruiser, of 6,500 tons and 22 knots' speed, destroyed by a Japanese squadron at Chemulpho.)

pushing on through Korea to the Yalu River and Manchuria. By the 18th of February, transports were on the way to the mainland. General Alexieff and his staff had removed from Port Arthur to Harbin, at the junction of the Vladivostok and Port Arthur railways.

*Can
Port Arthur
Be Held?*

Ships of war are at too great a disadvantage in duels with modern land artillery to allow an attempt on the part of the Japanese fleet to reduce the fortifications of Port Arthur. The capture of Port Arthur must be after a successful investment by land, and no doubt Japanese strategists have very clearly in mind just where and when the operations are to begin. The weakness of the all-important post is in its long line of communications and supplies,—the Siberian railroad to Vladivostok,—and it is Japan's obvious aim to cut this line as soon as possible. In the first week of the war, Admiral Alexieff reported attempts to blow up the railroad bridge over the Sungari River and cut the telegraph line. It is commonly understood that Manchuria swarms with Japanese spies, numbers of them working on the railroad disguised as Chinese coolies. If Japan can keep this railroad cut for a few weeks, while her navy has Russia's main squadron bottled up in the harbor, Port Arthur is hers.

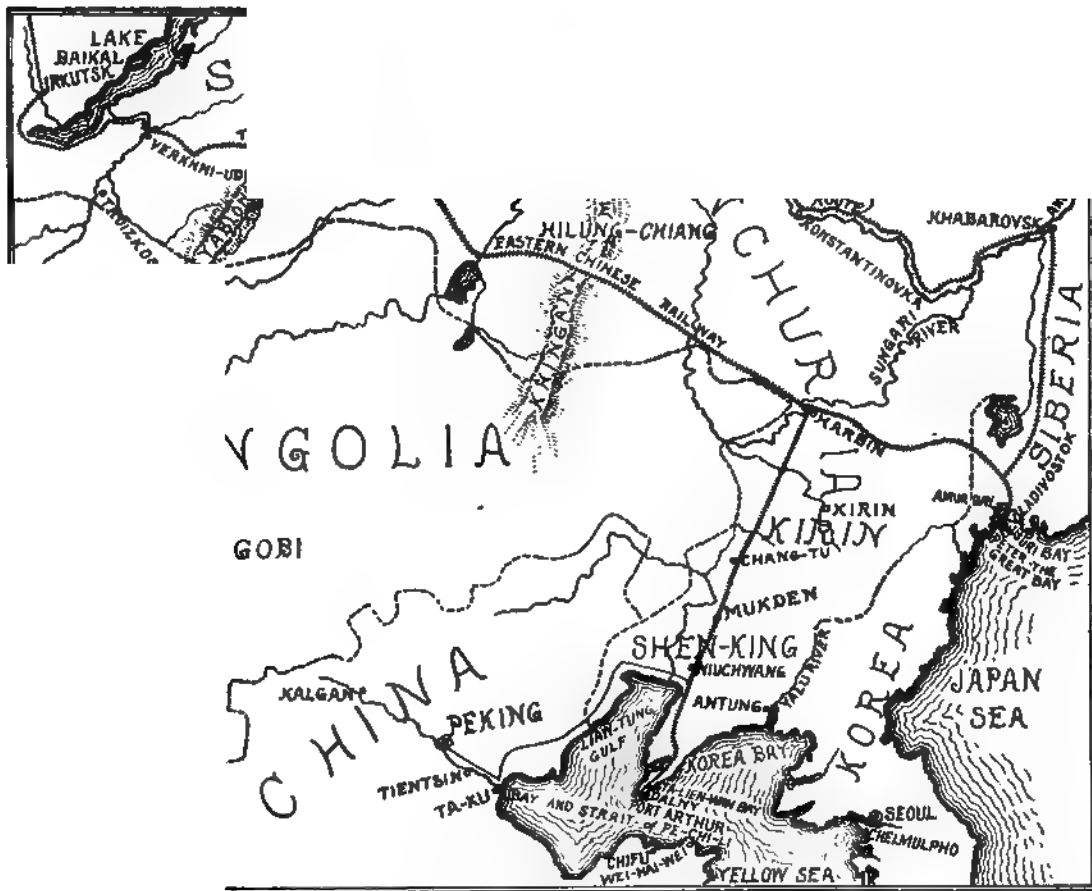
*Manchuria in
the War.*

Should Japan become undisputed mistress of the seas, of Korea, and of Port Arthur, the crucial stages of the war will yet remain to be fought out in the great province of Manchuria, a country six times as large as England and Wales, with twenty million inhabitants, and a climate similar to that of Canada. What actual force the Russians now have in Manchuria is probably known only to Admiral Alexieff, Viceroy of the East, and the Russian war office. The most recent estimates by outsiders give 150,000 soldiers and 296 field guns. Against such an army Japan would have to concentrate her entire available land force,

and in any extensive campaign would have to keep open a considerable line of communications. But in weighing the final event it is not so important to find how many soldiers Russia now has in Manchuria as to estimate how many she proposes to send. For a country in which eight hundred thousand young men come to the age of military service every year, it is only a question of transportation facilities to mobilize troops enough to drive out Japan's comparatively small forces. Thus, the Trans-Siberian Railroad comes to be the crux of the situation, should Japan succeed so far as to a successful invasion of Manchuria. Russia's far-seeing war lords have an entire separate class of soldiers along this road,—train-guards, picked men, nearly all under thirty, most of them with their wives and children, growing up with the country. It is understood that no less than sixty thousand of these stalwart soldier-police are settled along the all-important railroad.

*The
Two Soldiers
Compared.*

The Japanese and Russian soldiers are both below par in marksmanship. It is said that no amount of conscientious practice has overcome the defective vision of the Japanese, many of whom are equipped by the government with eyeglasses. Both the stocky little Jap and the big, sturdy Russian are



TRANS-SIBERIAN RAILWAY EAST OF LAKE BAIKAL.

(The strength and weakness of Russia in Manchuria and the East. Irkutsk is 4,400 miles from Moscow and 1,000 miles from Port Arthur.)

capable of great endurance, both are well drilled,—the Japanese the better,—and in both armies is the artillery arm esteemed effective, the Japanese again the better. The great advantage of the Russians is in the cavalry division. Their great bodies of Cossacks in Manchuria are the finest horse soldiers in the world, and they are on ground they thoroughly understand. The Japanese are not good horsemen, and their mounts cannot compare with the Russian animals.

New York
the
News Center.

In the Chino-Japanese War, and in the Boxer uprising, London was the clearing-house for Eastern news, which was cabled from Shanghai by way of the Indian Ocean and Suez. This involved some thirty-two or thirty-three relays, and made the transmission of cable news very slow and rather inaccurate. In the present war, all this is changed by the existence of our Pacific cable.

The war news is sent from Chefu to New York, by way of Manila and Honolulu, with only five relays, and exemplary dispatch. The news of the Port Arthur fight of February 8-9 was published in the New York papers of February 10, and that city has taken London's place as the news center for Asiatic events. American war correspondents are not allowed on Russian or Japanese ships, of course, nor is it likely that the well-equipped, swift dispatch boats of the news organizations, such as were used in our Spanish War, will be tolerated in Russo-Japanese naval operations. But the great gatherers of news have been assiduous in preparing to meet the demands on them, and the progress of the war so far shows a wonderfully equipped apparatus and scheme for the capture of early and accurate information. In fact, war news is coming rather more quickly and accurately than it came from Cuban waters in 1898.

The Associated Press, the chief organization for news-gathering in America, had nine trained war correspondents at strategic points in the East when fighting began, and immediately dispatched three more. Mr. Melville Stone, general manager of the Associated Press, obtained an audience with the Czar and was promised that the official dispatches by way of the Trans-Siberian telegraph line should be put at the service of the American company as quickly and extensively as the situation would allow, and Mr. Howard Thompson, a veteran war correspondent, was hurried to St. Petersburg to take charge. Consequently, New York has had the benefit of a number of Vice-roy Alexieff's official reports only a few hours after they were received in St. Petersburg. Similarly, Mr. Egan, the Associated Press staff correspondent in Tokio, is *persona grata* with the Japanese Government. When the Mikado had issued his review of the causes leading up to the war, Mr. Egan spent two thousand dollars in cable tolls to get this document before New Yorkers' eyes a few hours before it would be given out through the Japanese embassy in Washington, and succeeded in easily beating the official channels.

It is a mistake to suppose that Russia really wanted war with Japan. The Czar was opposed to it. A strong peace party in St. Petersburg, headed by such prominent far-sighted, patriotic Russians as ex-Minister of Finance Witte and Prince Esper Ukhtomsky, projector of the Eastern Chinese Railway, founder of the Russo-Chinese Bank, and author of "Russia's Mission in Asia," has

stood out bravely against the jingoism which has forced an unprepared nation into a mighty conflict,—to appease land-hunger. Russia wants an ice-free port on the Pacific; she wants an uninterrupted Pacific coast line; she wants new trade; she wants—eventually, perhaps—China. But it is not likely that she really wants these enough to fight for them. The best, ablest men of Russia know that she is not prepared for war. The Alexieffs and the Pobiedonostseffs have tried to convince the Czar that a foreign war would defer a political and social crisis. The far-seeing counselors, and the rest of the world, can see that war is likely to precipitate such a crisis. With the Finns smarting under recent outrages and taking no pains to conceal the fact that they are planning a revolution; the Poles only waiting the moment to revenge themselves for centuries of oppression; Siberia crying out for autonomy; a revolt already broken out in the Caucasus; the Jews spreading an insurrectionary propaganda of undying hatred; the finances disordered; every university a center of revolution; millions of ignorant peasants facing almost constant famine, because of the inadequacy of the empire's economic policy; with the Balkans almost already aflame, and scarcely a friend among the nations of the world, what can Russia hope to gain by a mere war of conquest against a united people with a superior navy, financial stability, three times as many children in the elementary schools, and the sympathy of the civilized world, which believes that the Land of the Rising Sun is fighting to uphold territorial and commercial integrities, not only for itself, but for the whole world?

RUSSIAN ARTILLERY OFFICERS AT MUKDEN.

(General Grodekoff [in center, wearing fur-lined overcoat] and his staff at the Manchurian capital.)

*Financing
the War.*

On the outbreak of the war, the bonds of the Russian Government fell 15 per cent., and Japanese government securities 25 per cent., while the smaller drop in consols, rentes, and other European state securities reflected the apprehension that the trouble between Japan and Russia might lead to a general conflagration. Japan, with a very small debt in proportion to her population, has a smaller external borrowing capacity than Russia. She proposes to raise a war fund of \$250,000,000, and to obtain the first \$50,000,000 at once by an internal loan. The Mikado heads the subscription list, and such is the wild enthusiasm of the Japanese for the war that it is reported the loan will be oversubscribed many times. The land, income, and sugar taxes have been doubled. An evidence of the war zeal of the Japanese nation is given in the proposal of the Mikado's subjects in New York City to raise a fund of \$5,000,000. Many Americans are contributing to the fund, and, indeed, the sympathy of the man-on-the-street in America is so strongly with the plucky little Island Empire that one might think the reports of the Port Arthur fights were the records of American triumphs. The popular feeling in favor of Japan is not less strong in England, and is outspoken in parts of the Continent, though France, of course, is loyal to her friend the Czar. The Russian Government some years ago took over a monopoly of the sale of

Photo by Pach Bros.

HON. JOHN HAY.
(Secretary of State.)

vodka, the national alcoholic stimulant, and is considering the addition of tea to the government monopolies.

*The United
States to the
Powers.*

On February 8, Secretary Hay addressed a note to Germany, Great Britain, and France, inviting those powers to suggest to the belligerent governments, Russia and Japan, that hostilities should be localized and restricted to as small an area as possible, and that the neutrality and administrative entity of China should be respected, in order that China might be free from disturbances, and that foreign interests there should not be menaced. Three days later, Secretary Hay extended this invitation to Italy, Austria-Hungary, The Netherlands, Denmark, Spain, and Belgium; and in the meantime, on February 10, the United States made its own recommendation direct to Russia and Japan. This invitation was accepted and acted on by all the powers addressed. Technically, the language of the note, in the phrase "the administrative entity of China," might have included Manchuria, a province of China, as part of the area to be exempt from hostilities. France and Russia, in according their approval to the suggestion, were careful to except Manchuria from its provisions. Mr. Hay was dealing with conditions rather than theories, and as active belligerent

SAVING CHINA.

UNCLE SAM: "Fight it out, boys, if you must, but confine your attentions to each other."

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

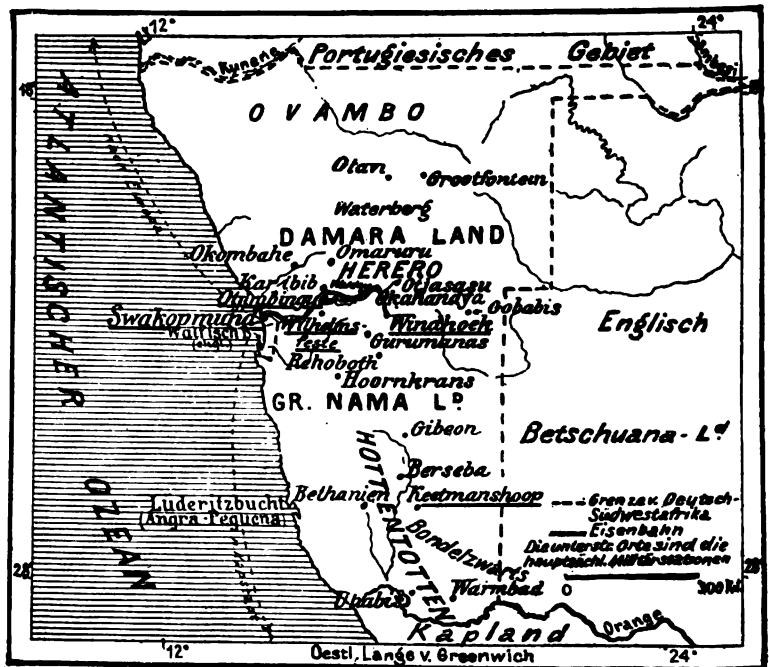
operations were already on foot in Manchuria, and as that country was inevitably to be the chief theater of the war, it would have been absurd to suppose that this mild suggestion of simultaneous but individual action ought to be construed as a request to stop the war. Some hold, however, that Russia will make much of this tacit recognition of Manchuria's separation from the "administrative entity of China."

*A War in the
Near East,
Perhaps.*

As the tension between Russia and Japan increased, Turkey and Bulgaria became more and more openly hostile, until now that the war is actually on in the far East, the Turk and the Bulgar are apparently only waiting for a pretext to attack each other. The long-expected war in the Balkans seems nearer than ever before. If the Christians of Macedonia rise in the spring, Bulgaria will scarcely resist the temptation to assist them. The condition of these Macedonian Christians is worse than deplorable,—it is desperate. In Bulgaria alone, there are three thousand families of refugees, numbering more than twelve thousand souls, 75 per cent. of whom are reported to be absolutely helpless. They are half starved, a prey to typhus and other diseases, and without sufficient clothing. Conditions are still worse in Macedonia. The Porte continues to put obstacles in the way of the civil agents appointed by Austria and Russia under the Mürszteg convention. Russia's preoccupation in Asia may be construed to be the Turk's opportunity in Europe. Desultory warfare between border bands continues, and the Porte has ordered the Salonika Railroad Company to place all its rolling stock at the disposal of the military authorities, and to form a coal depot at every railroad station. The last Turko-Greek war, it will be remembered, was immediately preceded by such a measure. Meanwhile, affairs in Servia grow worse daily, and plots are discovered to dethrone King Peter. He is reported to be sick of his job, and almost prepared to voluntarily lay aside his crown. What will Europe do next in its "lumber room?" Perhaps Austria can say.

*Germany's
Troubles
In Africa.*

The aftermath of the South African war seems to be hurting the Germans more than the British. The present trouble in German Southwest Africa, according to a native paper published in the adjoining British protectorate of Bechuanaland, began with the unprovoked shooting of a native by a German officer. This, however, was merely the "touch off" to an explosive condition of affairs which has attended Germany's rather severe South African policy for the past three years, and which culminated, in the month of January, when the Herero natives revolted and laid waste a country larger than Texas, massacring one hundred white settlers. Germany's rather unlucky colonial experience in Africa is touched upon in one of our "Leading Articles" this month, which recounts the French attempt to establish a protectorate over Morocco and German jealousy of its apparent success. It is the old story of the crowding back of the native by the white man. On both sides of the frontier, German and British, feeling is high. The natives are in active sympathy, and Germany may require British coöperation to put down the uprising. England would no doubt, probably, be glad to help, as since the Boer war her own subject population has been discontented throughout the entire region. The scene of the present trouble is the southern part of Damaland, or about the center of the German protec-

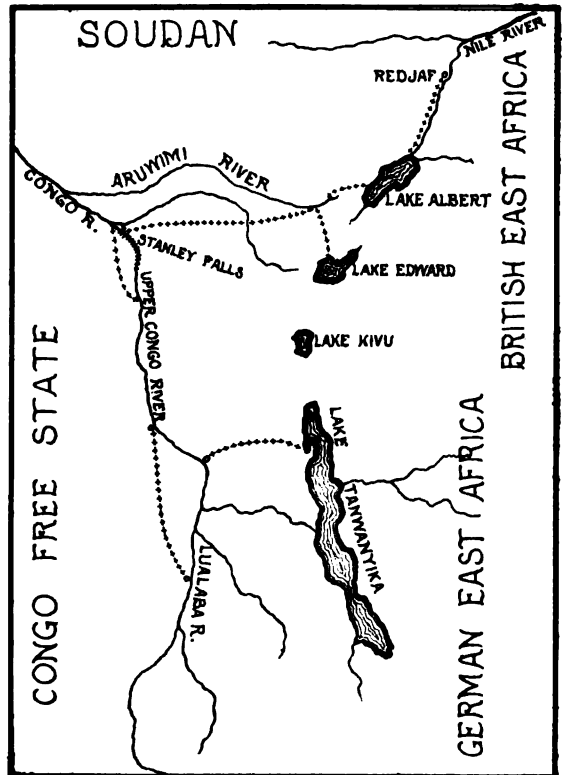


GERMAN MAP OF THE SEAT OF WAR IN SOUTHWEST AFRICA.

torate. The Hereros—about sixty-five thousand herders of sheep and cattle—roam over a country which comprises some of the best and most productive land in the colony. It is inhabited by farmers,—chiefly German peasants and Boer refugees,—who have been turning the wilderness into fields, building houses, and advancing in prosperity. They had also built a railroad, which the natives have now almost ruined. It is probable that the withdrawal of German garrisons to put down the Hottentot rebellion in the south encouraged the Hereros to massacre and pillage. Germany has now about a thousand troops on the scene of the revolt, and may succeed soon in stamping it out. The country, however, will be long in recovering from the setback its industry and enterprise have received. Our map of the region where the massacres have occurred is reproduced from the officially authorized one appearing in *Die Woche*, of Berlin.

**More
Outrages in
the Congo.**

If there be even a small proportion of truth in the persistent reports of outrage and massacre in the Congo, the powers which signed the international act relative to that state have a duty to perform which will cause a readjustment of King Leopold's administration. Massacres of natives seem to be of frequent occurrence. A private letter received by a member of the Student Voluntary Movement for Foreign Missions, of this city, dated December 2 last, gives an account of the revolting massacre of three natives, one a child, and tells of great brutality on the part of Belgian soldiers. The Congo Committee of the International Union, at its last meeting in London, passed a resolution indorsing Dr. Grattan Guinness' attempt to arouse British protest against the atrocities in the Congo by mass-meetings all over the kingdom. King Leopold of Belgium seems to be making vigorous efforts to convince the world of the beneficent character of his Congo enterprise. He has appointed Gen. Paul Costermans as the new governor. M. Costermans has had considerable experience in the Congo, and is a man of distinction and ability. It was he who established the river-steamer transport service, and while commissioner of the district of Stanley Pool he managed the governmental side of the construction of the Congo Railway. An official report, recently issued, declares that in addition to the Congo Railway around the Livingstone Cataract, completed in 1897, there are now under construction and survey six more lines. One of these will connect Stanley Falls with Lake Albert, and another will run through Lake Albert to a point of navigation at the head of the Upper Nile. All these lines will greatly



WHERE THE CONGO RAILROADS ARE BEING BUILT.

facilitate communication between the Congo and the Nile systems. They will ultimately be western connections of the "Cape to Cairo" road.

**War and
Outrage in
Santo Domingo.**

The Monroe Doctrine is giving our government trouble in a new quarter. During the past year, several unusually destructive and violent revolutions have taken place on the island of Haiti, in both negro republics, principally in Santo Domingo. Our two articles, this month, in another part of the magazine, give an insight into the conditions of life in these countries, and show the unsettled political status of both. The revolution in Santo Domingo seems to have reached an acute stage. The partisans of General Morales stoutly maintain that he has practically subdued the rebellion led by General Jimenez; and United States Minister Powell has practically recognized the *de facto* government. General Jimenez, however, continues to fight, and the rebels have captured the town of Macoris. Later reports declare that the rebellion has been put down, though the capital city of Santo Domingo is still besieged by the Jimenez forces. The shooting of one of the engineers of the United States cruiser *Yankee* by the insurgents and the violation of the

American consulate at Samana have aroused the Government to the necessity for drastic measures. For a long time, both parties in Santo Domingo have been wearing out the patience of their foreign creditors in Germany, France, and England, defying the rest of the world under the shadow of the Monroe Doctrine. Several cruisers of the Atlantic Squadron, under Rear-Admiral Wise, have been sent to the island to demand satisfaction. It is a question whether, in order to protect the lives and interests of American citizens and fulfill the obligations as well as demand the privileges of the Monroe Doctrine, the United States will not be forced to intervene and give the Dominicans a much-needed lesson.

On the other side of the island, Gen-
Haiti and Honduras eral Nord seems to be fairly secure
Also. in authority. Haiti, however, also has a revolution, and the Atlantic Squadron will have its hands full to look after American interests in the French negro republic. Before the echoes of the liberty demonstration,—described by Mr. Miller in his article in this number of the REVIEW,—have died away, a conspiracy has been discovered to depose General Nord. A prominent native general and several friends have been murdered, and the outbreak involves the German consul and the American legation, where fourteen refugees, three of them Senators and two Deputies, are being protected. On the mainland of Central America, in Honduras, a revolution has broken out, and martial law has been declared over the entire country. Admiral Glass has been ordered to the coast to look after American interests.

The last vestige of the American oc-
Progress of cupation of Cuba disappeared on
"Cuba Libre." February 4, when the American flag was lowered from the Cabana barracks in Havana, and the last battalion of American soldiers boarded the transport *Sumner* for the United States. Thus, said President Palma, in his address on the occasion, "the United States reflects upon itself everlasting glory in keeping its promise to the letter and in making us proud of ourselves; for it means that nobody doubts our competence to govern ourselves, or our ability to maintain peace and order and guarantee the rights of all the inhabitants of this island." A number of important commercial and financial measures were decided on in the closing hours of the Cuban Congress, among these a bill providing for the payment of interest on the revolutionary bonds, and announcing the intention of ultimately paying the principal. Intimate commercial relations are rapidly being initiated. A

New York banking firm has just floated the \$35,000,000 loan of the republic. The American Foreign Trade Association has urged all the commercial bodies of Cuba to agitate for trademark and patent legislation, the rice-growers of Louisiana are sending a committee to lay before the next session of the Cuban Congress a proposition for a change in the rice duties, and American tobacco-growers are coming to a better understanding with planters in Cuba. The new tariff took effect on February 8.

Affairs in Colombia. Warlike feeling over Panama and the canal would seem to be subsiding in Colombia. It is evident that the internal affairs of that country are such that Gen. Rafael Reyes, the newly elected president, is finding his hands full at home. The Department of Bolivar is reported to be practically in a state of anarchy, this condition of affairs growing out of the determination of the Bogotá government to oust General Castro from the command of the military in that department. It seems that General Castro is a partisan of the new president, while the outgoing administration (that of Marroquin) desired General Manjarres for the position. Dr. Francis Nicholas, in his article on Panama, which appears in the REVIEW this month, gives some interesting sidelights upon the bitter feeling existing between Panama and the Bogotá government, and in our other article on Latin-American opinion on Panama an opinion from a Bogotá paper is quoted which shows the strength of the opposition at the time of Panama's secession.

In Panama itself. The republic of Panama is busy with its new constitution and its new government. The constitutional convention has concluded its labors, and the organic law of the new nation has been officially promulgated by the junta. Dr. Manuel Amador, who has been elected president, proposed the following article, which has been incorporated in the instrument:

Should public peace or constitutional order be disturbed in any part of the republic of Panama, the Government of the United States may intervene to restore peace or order, in the event that the United States, by treaty or convention, shall have assumed, or expressed the intention of assuming, the obligation of guaranteeing the independence and sovereignty of this republic.

United States Forces on the Isthmus. William Buchanan, the emergency minister to Panama, has resigned, and William W. Russell, secretary of the American legation at Caracas, Venezuela, has been appointed active minister. With the announcement of Mr. Russell's appointment, the

President sent to the Senate a mass of correspondence, in response to Senator Gorman's resolution calling for the dates and circumstances under which the United States employed military forces in the internal affairs of New Granada, or Colombia, or Panama. The correspondence shows that the United States forces have been landed on the Isthmus of Panama ten times. The first was in October, 1856, at the request of Panama authorities, and the second



Photo by Scherzer.

DR. MANUEL AMADOR.
(Panama's new President.)

in September, 1860, with the sanction of Panama authorities. Other landings were as follows: May, 1861; June, 1862; March, 1865; in 1866, the month not given; in 1873, in 1885, in November, 1901, and in September, 1902. On one occasion only were the United States forces landed solely on the initiative of the United States,—in September, 1902,—and the Panama authorities were duly notified

of the proposed landing. In transmitting the correspondence, Secretary Loomis says that "the forces of the United States have never been employed in the internal affairs of New Granada or Colombia otherwise than to protect United States property and maintain order and the freedom of the transit on the Isthmian territory under the provisions of the treaty of 1846."

On the same day (February 1) that Secretary Taft assumed the duties of his new post at the War Department, his final report as governor of the Philippines was transmitted to Congress by President Roosevelt, in connection with the third annual report of the Philippine Commission, which recommends legislation reducing the tariff on sugar and tobacco imported from the Philippines to not more than 25 per cent. of the present Dingley rates on those articles imported from foreign countries, and that the application of the United States coastwise navigation laws to the trade between the Philippines and our mainland be postponed for five years. The worst of the distress resulting from the shortened food-supply in the islands seems to have been passed. The centers of disturbance are now confined to the

Moro country, and the commission evidently thinks that these can and will be summarily removed. So far as peace and good order are concerned, the commission declares that the condition of the islands is now quite as good as it ever was during the Spanish régime. Gov. Luke E. Wright, in his inaugural address, on February 1, declared his intention of adhering to the principles of the Taft administration.

On his return to New York, after handing over the War Department to Secretary Taft, the Hon. Elihu Root electrified the conservative membership of the Union League Club, at a dinner given in his honor, by a warm tribute to President Roosevelt, whom he characterized as "the greatest conservative force for the protection of property and of capital in the city of Washington during the years that have elapsed since President McKinley's death." To the Wall Street objection that the President is not "safe," Mr. Root replied: "He is not safe for the men who wish government to be conducted with greater reference to campaign contributions than to the public good. [Applause and cries of "Good!"] He is not safe for the men who wish to draw the President of the United States off into a corner and make whispered arrangements which they dare not have known by their constituents." The ex-Secretary declared that on more than one occasion the Presidential veto had been threatened when extremists in Congress had proposed violent and unfair measures against capital.

*The Foraker
Commerce
Bill.*

An unnecessary commotion was made in some quarters, last month, over a bill introduced in the Senate by Mr. Foraker, of Ohio, "to relieve foreign commerce and acts and contracts in reasonable restraint of trade and commerce among the several States from the operations of the interstate commerce law and the Sherman Act." This bill, if enacted into law, would open to judicial interpretation the question of "reasonable" restraint. An attempt was made—chiefly in the opposition newspapers—to commit the administration to the measure, but Attorney-General Knox expressed his disapproval in no uncertain terms. There seems to be a general agreement that the passage of such a bill would lead to the practical subversion of the anti-trust law now on the statute-books, and even its advocates in the press admit that the present is not an opportune moment for an attempt at such legislation. Senator Foraker's defense of the measure is based on the claim that its terms would simply carry out the original intentions of those who framed the laws.

Service Pensions.

A measure that seems far more likely to be enacted into law by this Congress is the service-pension bill introduced in the House, late in January, by Representative Sulloway, of New Hampshire, chairman of the Committee on Invalid Pensions. This bill provides that all Union soldiers in the Civil

War who served ninety days or longer and were honorably discharged, and who have reached the age of sixty-two years, shall be entitled to a pension of \$8 a month. When the soldier is sixty-six years of age, he is to receive \$10 a month, and when seventy years of age, \$12 a month. By the terms of the bill, those who are now drawing the minimum pension of \$6 a month under the

HON. CYRUS SULLOWAY, OF
NEW HAMPSHIRE.

existing laws are to have that sum increased to \$8. The pensions of widows who married soldiers prior to January 1, 1870, are to be increased to \$12 a month. An additional rate of \$2 a month is granted to men who served for two years or more. It is believed by those who have investigated the matter that the proposed law would add to the pension rolls perhaps 100,000 names, involving an additional expenditure, in the immediate future, of about \$15,000,000 a year. What is known as the "Grand Army" bill, which proposes a twelve-dollar monthly pension to all ninety-day men, would necessitate a vastly greater outlay, estimated, for the first year, as high as \$60,000,000.

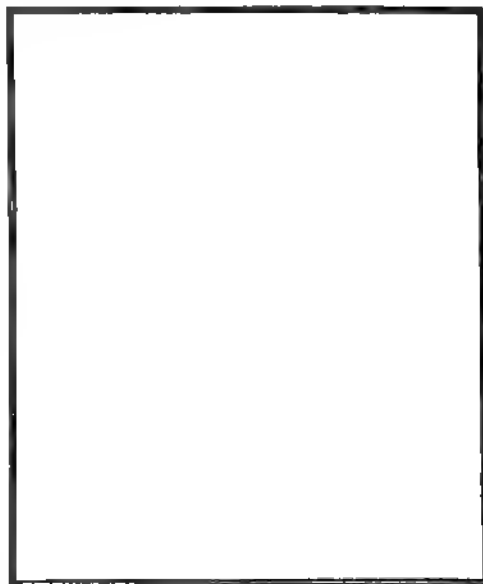
Panama in the Senate.

At the Senate end of the Capitol, the engrossing topic of discussion, last month, was Panama. Long before the time set for a vote on the treaty, it became known that ratification was assured. Members availed themselves of the privilege of speaking in open Senate on the Bacon resolution, favoring a treaty with Colombia, and thus put themselves on record for or against the canal proposition. It was not necessary to steal the secrets of the executive session, in which alone the treaty *per se* could be debated, to learn the attitude of many Senators on the general question of a canal, and their probable attitude toward the treaty. Most significant was the stand taken by Southern Democrats for the canal. The Atlanta

Constitution and other influential journals in the South undoubtedly did great service in securing the support of Democratic Senators. The maiden speech of Senator Clarke, of Arkansas, was entirely devoted to a defense of the administration's Panama policy.

Porto Rico's Delegate.

Early in February, important action was taken by the House on a matter in which the Senate's concurrence is not required. Porto Rico has heretofore been represented at Washington by a "resident commissioner," Mr. Federico Degetau. An amendment to the House rules now elevates this commissionership to an equality in rights and privileges with the position of Territorial Delegate. Mr. Degetau is the first of Spain's former subjects to occupy a seat in our Congress, and the first man from any of our insular possessions taken over from Spain to have a part in legislation at Washington. Incidentally, he is probably the only man in history who has occupied, successively, a seat in the Spanish Cortes and a seat in the American House of Representatives. Mr. Degetau is a man of broad accomplishments and an interesting personality.



HON. F. DEGETAU.

(Porto Rican Delegate at Washington.)

A New Senator from Maryland.

Among the State legislatures, of which only about a dozen have been in session during the winter, the most notable development last month, was the close of the prolonged deadlock in Maryland, resulting in the election of the Hon. Isidor Rayner, an

In Virginia, Senator Daniel, and in Mississippi, Senators Money and McLaurin, were reelected without op-

*Activities in
Other States.*

position. Very little legislation of general interest has been enacted in either of the States named. In Mississippi, the most decisive result thus far reached is the defeat of the prohibition amendments to the constitution in the lower house. It is understood that an attempt will now be made to pass a bill providing for statutory prohibition. The State is just completing the furnishings of its new million-dollar capitol building. After considerable discussion, the Kentucky Legislature has decided to keep the State capital at Frankfort, and has made an appropriation of one million dollars for a new building. The Kentucky Legislature has met at Frankfort since 1792, although many efforts have been made to establish the seat of government elsewhere. Meanwhile, in South Carolina, a scandal of no small dimensions has been unearthed in connection with the expenditures for the completion of the State House. South Carolina, by the way, is about to adopt the system of biennial legislative sessions, a constitutional amendment to that effect having been passed by the present Legislature, to be submitted to the people at the next general election. When this change is finally accomplished there will remain only five States

HON. ISIDOR RAYNER.

(Senator-elect from Maryland.)

eminent Democratic lawyer of Baltimore, as Mr. Gorman's colleague in the United States Senate. It is well known that Mr. Rayner's candidacy had not had the approval of Senator Gorman or of the State Democratic machine, and his election was generally hailed as a blow at Gorman leadership in State politics. Mr. Rayner formerly represented one of the Maryland districts in the lower house of Congress, where he made a brilliant record. More recently, he came into public notice as the counsel of Admiral Schley before the investigation commission, in 1901. Mr. Rayner also served as attorney-general of Maryland. It would be premature to say that Mr. Gorman's influence in Maryland politics has been undermined or even seriously shaken by Mr. Rayner's election. There are few more astute politicians in the country than Senator Gorman. So much time was occupied by the Senatorial deadlock that comparatively little was accomplished in the way of actual legislation in Maryland up to the time of the Baltimore fire. Since that event, the attention of the Legislature has been largely directed to necessary relief measures.

SENATOR GORMAN, OF MARYLAND.

in the Union holding annual legislative sessions,—namely, Georgia, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, and Rhode Island. The only States of the middle West whose legislatures have been in session this winter are Ohio and Indiana. In the former State, attention has been largely devoted to the school codes of the cities of Cleveland, Cincinnati, Columbus, and Toledo. In Iowa, various bills looking to the control of primary elections have been introduced, and there is a prospect of some measure of this character being enacted into law. The economic interests of this prosperous agricultural State, particularly highway improvement, are also receiving the attention of the legislators.

*New York's
Educational
System.*

In New York State, there has been a notable absence of a definite legislative programme at Albany. On only one topic—the unification of the State school system—has there been a sufficient crystallization of legislative purpose to insure specific enactment. The two systems of public education maintained by the State,—the one for higher and secondary educational interests, and the other embracing the elementary schools,—are at last to be consolidated and brought under the direction of the Board of Regents, the members of which are to be reduced in number and elected by the Legislature. The executive head of the consolidated system is to be a State commissioner of education, to be elected, in the first instance, by the Legislature, and subsequently by the Board of Regents. The dual organization now to be supplanted has been the source of much friction in the past.

*The
Baltimore Fire.*

The great fire that raged in Baltimore on February 7 and 8, destroying practically the entire financial district, takes rank, in destructiveness, next to the Chicago conflagration. That not a single life was lost in a fire sweeping over a thousand buildings, many of them the largest in the city, was evidently due to the time of the disaster—Sunday morning—and the fortunate change of wind that restricted the injury to the office-building section. The startling dimensions of the loss, the temper of Baltimore's people, and the lessons to be learned from the conflagration are set forth in two articles in this issue. For weeks after the fire, Baltimore has been the Mecca of architects, engineers, and other experts in building construction, drawn thither on the business of planning the restoration of the financial section, and by the attraction of such an object-lesson for the building guild as does not, fortunately, come more than once in a genera-

tion. The reports,—by such authorities as Mr. William Barclay Parsons,—on the condition of the great modern steel buildings after the fire show that these monster structures of metal and concrete are, in the constructor's sense of the term, fairly entitled to the appellation fireproof, for even in this gigantic wind-driven blast of fire, not only the steel structures of the best buildings were practically unharmed, but the concrete and brick walls and floors as well were intact, except where some heavy safe had fallen. The walls in which the chief component part was brick seemed to fare best, while granite walls were the worst. But while such fireproof qualities may gratify the owner and the insurance company, they have not much cheer for the man actually caught in a high building by a conflagration like Baltimore's. Any human life trapped in even the best of fireproof buildings must evidently be destroyed, for the intense heat finds sufficient woodwork in the floors, trimmings, and furniture to convert the skyscraper into a veritable furnace. All skilled observers of the ruins at Baltimore agree in advocating the use of metal shutters and wire

THE HURST BUILDING, WHERE THE FIRE STARTED.

glass in the tall buildings as a powerful help in stopping the spread of flames from one skyscraper to another, but, so far, the unsightly architectural effect of hundreds of shutters on the sides and façade of a modern building has prevented their use.

*The
Financial
Loss.*

It is thought that from one-half to two-thirds of Baltimore's total loss will be covered by insurance. Two insurance companies found the sudden accumulation of losses too much for their resources, and announced their failure. If the gale of Feb-

ruary 7 that bore on before it the fire and devastation had swung into the south, instead of the north, many Baltimoreans might have been able to collect only a fraction of the sums due from insurance companies. The example of the Chicago fire, where the insurance companies were not able to pay in full, and the narrow escape from such a condition in Baltimore, suggest the advisability of carrying still further, at any expense of complexity, the already admirable system of reinsurance and division of risks among a multitude of companies. It should be impossible for any conflagration to threaten the solvency of an insurance company in good standing,—such a calamity may ruin the most prudent merchant,—and it should be the aim of insurance interests and insurance legislation to approach as near this ideal as business conditions will allow, by dividing the risks to such a degree that no single conflagration can find in its path a sufficient proportion of the risks of one company to endanger its solvency. In Baltimore, many of the losses have already been paid with exemplary promptness, and, curiously enough, it is said some of the larger insurance companies are of the opinion that they actually gain, over a term of years, from such a startling disaster as Baltimore's, owing to the convincing advertisement of the desirability of fire insurance. Over \$2,000,000 of the Baltimore insurance was placed with twenty-nine foreign companies,—in Germany, Holland, Scotland, and even Russia.

Baltimore Optimistic.

The bearing of the Baltimoreans in their time of need is highly courageous and hopeful. They have refused all outside aid, beyond the actual help in fire-fighting received from the engines and firemen of New York, Philadelphia, Wilmington, and other towns. Financial engagements were suspended for a time. The Baltimore Clearing House and the savings-banks were closed until the middle of the month, and the Stock Exchange until February 24. In many ways, the outside world has been able to lend a helping hand. The *News*, the excellent afternoon paper of Baltimore, was left without a plant, and in a few hours the manager bought one over the telephone from a New York newspaper publisher without setting a price. Baltimore is a tremendous distributing center for the South, and when her buyers came to the North, nervously expecting to pay the extra prices made possible by the sudden wholesale destruction of their stocks, they were equipped at the regular rates, and other customers had to wait,—a decidedly higher and vastly more difficult order of charity than the mere giving of money.

Chaos in Cotton Prices.

The closing days of January and the first week of February brought the wildest scenes and the highest prices known in the cotton market for a whole generation. The price of cotton, which had been rising for months, and in sensational spurts in more recent days, touched the high figure of 18½ cents a pound in New York, as compared with 5 cents five years ago. No such cotton prices had been seen since 1873. The South was wild with excitement, and for every man with real cotton to sell there were a dozen buying cotton futures in pure speculation. Under the leadership of a group of bold and plausible operators, the cumulative buying of the speculators, professional and amateur, seemed likely to fulfill the prophecy of "20-cent cotton," the watchword of a vast army of excited gamblers. Clerks with a

few hundred dollars, working people with their savings-bank pitances, everybody with ready money or credit, "bought cotton." "Twenty-cent cotton" became a fetic, and every farmer's son could explain how cotton could not go down because there was not enough to fill the demand, and because there was no surplus labor in the South, owing to the factories

D. J. SULLY, WHO LED THE SOUTH'S CLAMOR OF "20-CENT COTTON."

and railroads, to extend the acreage. Factory-owners in America prepared for a shut-down, the English spinners of Lancashire were hopeless of obtaining the raw product, King Edward deeming the cotton situation of such importance as to discuss it in his address to Parliament. Englishmen and Germans have been sending experts to America to study cotton-culture, hoping to start plantations in West Africa, the Transvaal, and the West Indian islands. The price of cotton prints jumped to 4 cents, as against a normal price of 2 cents or less. On the 1st of February, the price broke heavily on the single announcement that the leading "bull" operator was going to take a vacation, and in a couple of weeks the price had broken to 13 cents, with some failures and general demoralization.

Causes of the High Prices. The underlying causes of 18-cent cotton were apparently a crop shortage and a tremendous exaggeration of the effects of this shortage by the wild speculation in the South and elsewhere. The devotees of the "20-cent-cotton" idea objected that no operator or group of operators could possibly

of four cotton bales brought him \$100 in cash, delivered at the nearest station, even when the price was 5 cents a pound. At this low price of five years ago, however, there was in many parts of the South no profit in cotton-raising. All of the twenty-five dollars brought by a bale had been already borrowed to pay for seed, labor, and plows. The farmer got nothing for his work and land. What price did he get this winter while clamoring brokers were offering 17 cents and more, and fortunes were being made on the exchanges? From a number of individual instances, it seems probable that the farmers, as a body, sold their 1903 crop at prices ranging from 9 to 14 cents. So, while they did not, of course, get the top prices, there was still a glorious profit, especially as compared with the lean years of the nineties. The South wears a broad smile of complacency, its country banks are full to overflowing with deposits, and Southern farmers are boasting that they will be in a financial condition next year,—the first for many years,—to wait for the cotton prices that seem fair to them.

THE COTTON PANIC.—From the Herald (New York).

control sufficient money or credit to raise the price by such record figures, but to an unprejudiced observer it will appear that a determined group of "bull" operators, with some foundation of short supply to start with, has been able to lead the wildly inflamed speculative spirit of a community of many millions to accomplish what no operator or coterie of operators could achieve without the public's frantic assistance. The world's consumption of cotton is put at 14,000,000 bales. By 1898, our Southern cotton-growing States were producing no less than 11,000,000 bales. The last four crops have averaged less than 10,500,000 bales, and during this period the mill stocks have been lowered simultaneously with a decided dwindling of the visible supply. The 1903 crop, of 10,758,326 bales, while an average year's product, was not sufficient to supply the deficiency, a panicky feeling was engendered in mill-owners, and speculation did the rest.

Does the Farmer Benefit? An important question is the result to the cotton farmer. Cotton is his "cash crop." He uses on his farm and in his home all or part of the corn, wheat, fodder, hay, and pork produced in the year's operations. For the overcoat that must be bought, for the taxes that must be paid, for the farm machinery, the daughter's schooling, interest on the mortgage, he relies on the proceeds of his cotton crop. One big wagon-load

Parliament and Mr. Chamberlain. The British Parliament opened, on February 2, with the usual speech from the throne. King Edward spoke of the Alaska boundary decision, referred to the war in the far East, and expressed the hope that the attempts to increase the area of cotton-cultivation in the British Empire might be successful. Politics in England are taking new lines of cleavage. Mr. Chamberlain seems to have succeeded in redividing Englishmen into Protectionists and Free Traders. His tariff commission (discussed in the last number of this Review) now holds secret sessions twice a week, and is, of course, purely advisory in its functions. It is, nevertheless, exciting bitter and almost universal discussion throughout the country. It is criticised as being "packed," because it contains no representatives of the agricultural interests, nor a single workingman. Mr. Chamberlain declares that its object is to prepare a scientific tariff which shall—(1) defend British interests from unfair competition, (2) provide the British Government with material for the negotiation of trade treaties with other countries, and (3) encourage commerce within the British Empire. As we noted last month, it seems to be the Tory policy to defer the general election for another year or so, in order to let Mr. Balfour "save his face" and carry out fully Mr. Chamberlain's "fiscalitis" campaign. At two bye-elections, the policy of the ex-colonial secretary has received a setback. At Norwich, the Free Trade Liberals won the seat, as did also the free-trade party at

Gateshead, the latter an industrial constituency. The opposition to the fiscal programme seems to be strengthening. Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, the Liberal leader in the Commons, arraigns the premier for long postponement of the discussion of the government's programme; and Mr. John Morley introduced a comprehensive amendment covering the entire situation, reciting the benefit accruing to English trade by the removal of the protective duties half a century ago, and, while admitting the need for fiscal reform, contending that "any return to protective duties, and more particularly when imposed on the food of the people, would be deeply injurious to the national strength, contentment, and well-being." This was really a vote of no confidence, and was voted down, although the government victory was a narrow one. One of the most picturesque incidents in the debate of the opening session of the Commons was the defense of the government's fiscal policy by Mr. Austen Chamberlain, the youthful chancellor of the exchequer, the young man dramatically referring to his father as "my right honorable friend the member for West Birmingham."

*The Irish Hold
the Balance
of Power.*

The Balfour ministry seems to be on its last legs, and, curiously enough, these uncertain supports are the Irish members of the House. The net outcome of the bye-elections that have taken place since October, 1900, when the last general election was held, has been to decrease the strength of the Conservative-Liberal-Unionist coalition, so that its majority would be wiped out if fifty votes went over to the opposition. The Liberal increase in votes in the twenty-six constituencies voting has been 42,517; the Tory increase, only 150. The Norwich and Gateshead elections would indicate that the opposition has more than these necessary fifty votes. Probably more than half of the Liberal-Unionists will side with the Duke of Devonshire in his determined resistance to the Chamberlain tariff programme. It is evident, then, that the assistance of the eighty-two Irish Nationalists is necessary for the life of the government. Despite the effort of the Duke of Devonshire to dissolve the Liberal-Unionist organization, the council has decided to maintain the organization. This will probably save the ministry. The correspondence between Mr. Chamberlain and the duke, covering a period of several months, indicates that the latter, while not so brilliant a letter-writer as Mr. Chamberlain, stands on more radical ground in resisting any attempt to divert the association's energy from its original purpose,—to resist Irish separatism. The Irish members,

THE DUKE OF DEVONSHIRE.

(Who is leading the opposition to the Chamberlain tariff programme.)

however, are recalcitrant. Mr. John Redmond declares that the Irish land act of last year has not blinded the Irish to the failure of the government in carrying out its promise to establish a

Catholic university in Ireland. For the Irish party, he declares there is no such thing as an alternative policy to home rule. Mr. Redmond, and Mr. Russell, whom Mr. W. T. Stead calls the only member for an Irish constituency who is a possible chief secretary for Ireland, threaten to desert the ministerial side unless home rule and the Catholic University are forthcoming. What with the Liberal taunts

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JOHN E. REDMOND.

(Leader of the Irish Nationalists in Parliament.)

for the government's failure in the Boer war, the opposition to the introduction of Chinese labor into the Transvaal, the war in Somaliland, the Thibetan expedition, and the responsibility

of Great Britain in the far East, Mr. Balfour's ministry is in an unenviable position.

*Report of the
Esher
Commission.* The report of the British Royal Army Commission, presided over by Lord Esher, whose work and scope were described in this Review last month, is divided into three sections. It treats of the Defense Committee, the Army Council, and army inspection. The report, which has been adopted by King Edward without waiting for the approval of Parliament, is drastic in its reorganization of the entire military system of Great Britain. "We urge the divorce of the administrative from the executive command, and the decentralization of the latter." In place of the commander-in-chief, a new post, that of inspector-general, with a term of five years, is created, the principal duty of this office being to inspect and report on the efficiency of the military forces. Earl Roberts has just retired from the position of commander-in-chief, and the Duke of Connaught becomes inspector-general under the new régime. The existing Defense Committee is to be enlarged by the addition of a permanent secretary, holding office for five years; two naval officers, selected by the admiralty; two military officers, chosen by the Viceroy of India; and, if possible, other colonial representatives, holding office for two years. In addition to the inspector-general, there is an army council, or general staff, on the same general plan as the German and that lately adopted in this country. It consists of Mr. Arnold-Forster, the war secretary; Lieutenant-General Neville, Colonial Secretary Lyttelton, Maj.-Gen. C. W. Douglas, Major-General Plumer, Maj.-Gen. Sir J. W. Murray, the Earl of Donoughmore, under-secretary for war; William Bromley-Davenport, financial secretary to the war office, and Sir E. W. D. Ward, permanent under-secretary of the war office. These are all experienced men, alive to the necessity of so reconstructing the British war office that it will hereafter have a "thinking department."

*Other
Happenings in
England.* Other happenings of the month in Great Britain of special interest to Americans were the release of Mrs. Florence Maybrick (on January 25), her life-sentence having been commuted to "ticket-of-leave;" the release of Col. Arthur Lynch, sentenced to life-imprisonment for fighting with the Boers against the British (a release which is reported to be due to the personal intercession of President Roosevelt); the spectacular conviction of Whitaker Wright for capitalizing at thirty times their value mining properties which he unloaded on the public by means of rosy pros-

pectuses and boards of directors made up of the English nobility; the removal to Washington of the remains of James Smithson, the Englishman

COLONEL ARTHUR LYNCH.

who, nearly a hundred years ago, founded and endowed the Smithsonian Institution; and the reference, in the King's speech, to Britain's interest in cotton.

*France and
Her Russian
Allies.* France has just passed from a rather languid interest in the canonization of Joan of Arc to a high state of tension over Russia's far-Eastern troubles. What will the republic do? The submission of new evidence to the Court of Cassation, which has reopened (on February 25) the once famous Dreyfus case, has caused scarcely a ripple, so thoroughly has France forgotten the unfortunate Jewish captain. Of course, France will be neutral in the present conflict in the far East; that is, as long as she can possibly remain so. The Combes ministry, in its proclamation of neutrality, has assumed that the Franco-Russian alliance does not compel France to give active aid to her ally until the latter is attacked by more than one power. There is, however, a large sentimental sympathy evident for Russia; but the recent Anglo-French *rapprochement* undoubtedly counts for much in France's ease of mind. With "perfidious Britain" on friendly terms, the necessity to rush into Russia's arms is no longer so pressing. The Socialist party, which holds the balance of power in the Parliament, has always been strongly opposed to the Russian alliance. M. Jaurès, leader of the party, in a recent newspaper interview, announced his in-

tention to publicly denounce the Franco-Russian alliance. It cannot be denied that since the first shot was fired at Port Arthur, Germany is perceptibly nearer her great eastern neighbor, and France actually further off. Meanwhile, the absorption of Morocco by France goes quietly on, and French influence is slowly pervading Siam and southern China. It will be interesting to watch the gradual approach of the three great powers, Russia, England, and France, from the south and the north, till they finally meet one another on "the roof of the world;" for Thibet is likely to be the ignition-point of Russian, British, and French advance in Asia.

Church and State. The republic's troubles with the Vatican are still far from settled. The

expulsion from France of the Abbé Delsor, the Alsatian priest, and the Pope's condemnation of the works of M. Loisy, four of which have been placed in the *Index expurgatorius* (see our "Leading Articles" this month), have been the occasions of anti-ministerial demonstrations and heated debates in the Chamber. The *Osservatore Romano*, the organ of the Vatican, announces that a "solution" of all the differences between the government and the Holy See is "immediately pending." The nature of this solution is not disclosed. Surely it cannot be the complete separation of Church and State which M. Combes is reiterating in his speeches and interviews! The general understanding, however, is that President Loubet, when he goes to Rome as the guest of King Humbert, will make a formal visit to the Pope, and then we may look for really important developments. Franco-American relations are more than cordial. One of the great Paris newspapers—*Figaro*—has just established an American edition, and the French ministry of commerce is still considering its reply to the last American note concerning a revision of the Franco-American reciprocity arrangement.

Obituary Notes.

There was a certain parallelism in the lives of the two great political leaders who died last month. Senator Hanna and ex-Secretary Whitney had both won remarkable success and reputation in other fields of effort before they thought of devoting themselves to politics in the large. Each became a force in national politics, not in his own personal interest, but in that of a friend to whom he pledged his undivided support. Mr. Hanna's devotion to McKinley in the campaigns of 1896 and 1900 was hardly less marked than that of Mr. Whitney to Grover Cleveland in 1884 and 1892. Although Mr. Whitney was the younger

THE LATE WILLIAM C. WHITNEY, OF NEW YORK.

man, he completed his active political career just as Mr. Hanna was entering on his,—eight years ago. Both men had unusual executive ability; they were adepts in political management. Senator Hanna could have been a great cabinet officer, as Mr. Whitney could have been an eminent parliamentarian. In the organization of great industrial undertakings, neither man had many equals. As Secretary of the Navy in President Cleveland's first cabinet, Mr. Whitney laid the foundations that made possible the victories at Santiago and Manila a decade later. In later years, he showed rare capacity in the consolidation of transportation interests in New York,—the same kind of capacity that Mr. Hanna had shown in Cleveland, as is indicated in Mr. Coolidge's sketch on page 296 of this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From January 21 to February 16, 1904.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

January 22.—The Senate adopts the Panama inquiry resolution of Mr. Gorman (Dem., Md.). . . . The House passes 209 private pension bills.

January 23.—The House debates the army appropriation bill.

January 25.—The Senate adopts a resolution introduced by Mr. Tillman (Dem., S. C.) calling for information as to the nomination of Dr. W. D. Crum for collector at Charleston, S. C.; Mr. Culberson (Dem., Texas) presents a Panama resolution of inquiry drawn up by the Democratic caucus committee. . . . The House passes the army appropriation bill.

January 26.—The Senate adopts, without debate, a resolution of inquiry as to nominations of army officers introduced by Mr. Tillman (Dem., S. C.). . . . The House adopts a resolution as to government horses and carriages in use by the Post-Office Department.

January 27.—In the Senate, Mr. Simmons (Dem., N. C.) speaks in favor of ratifying the Panama treaty. . . . The House considers the urgent deficiency appropriation bill; a service-pension bill is introduced.

January 29.—In the Senate, the Panama inquiry resolution of the Democratic caucus is adopted. . . . The House continues consideration of the urgent deficiency appropriation bill.

January 30.—The House passes the urgent deficiency appropriation bill after striking out the item providing for payment of mileage to members of Congress for both extra and regular sessions.

February 1.—In the Senate, Mr. Dietrich (Rep., Neb.) asks an investigation of the charges made against him in connection with the postal scandals. . . . The House considers the diplomatic and consular appropriation bill.

February 2.—In the Senate, Mr. Clarke (Dem., Ark.) and Mr. Fairbanks (Rep., Ind.) speak strongly in support of President Roosevelt's Panama policy. . . . In the House, the commissioner from Porto Rico, Mr. Degatau, is granted the privileges of a Territorial Delegate; he immediately introduces a bill making citizens of Porto Rico citizens of the United States.

February 3.—The Senate debates the proposed loan of \$4,600,000 to the St. Louis Exposition.

M. ANATOLE LEROY-BAULIEU.
(The French editor and member of the Institute of France, who is coming to lecture at Harvard.)

February 4.—The House passes the diplomatic and consular appropriation bill (\$1,996,600).

THE DUKE OF CONNAUGHT.

(Who has been appointed inspector-general of the British army.)

February 5.—The Senate passes the urgent deficiency appropriation bill, containing provision for the loan to the St. Louis Exposition. . . . The House passes the agricultural appropriation bill.

February 8.—The Senate passes a bill appropriating \$2,000,000 in aid of the proposed Lewis and Clark Exposition at Portland, Ore.; Mr. Hopkins (Rep., Ill.) and Mr. Clay (Dem., Ga.) speak in support of the Panama treaty. . . . The House discusses the proposed loan of \$4,600,000 to the St. Louis Exposition.

February 9.—The Senate passes the diplomatic and consular appropriation bill without debate.

February 15.—The Senate reaches an agreement to take the final vote on the Panama treaty of February 23. . . . Mr. Shafroth (Dem., Colo.) gives up his seat in the House, having discovered that his election was tainted with fraud.

February 16.—Both branches adjourn out of respect to Senator Hanna's memory.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

January 21.—The Mississippi Legislature reflects United States Senators Money (Dem.) and McLaurin (Dem.).

January 26.—The Virginia Legislature reflects United States Senator John W. Daniel (Dem.).

January 27.—On a writ of *habeas corpus*, Mayor Harrison, of Chicago, is relieved from responsibility for the Iroquois Theater fire.

January 28.—The Treasury Department at Washington issues new regulations for the inspection of passengers' baggage on ocean steamships.

January 29.—The New York Court of Appeals sustains the prevailing rate of wages law.

February 1.—On the retirement of Elihu Root from the cabinet, William H. Taft becomes Secretary of War.

February 4.—The Maryland Legislature elects Isidor Rayner (Dem.) to the United States Senate.... Mayor McClellan orders six New York theaters closed because of failure to make changes required in the interest of public safety.

February 11.—The New York State Railroad Commissioners make recommendations for the better management of street-railroad traffic in New York City.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT FOREIGN.

January 31.—The mayor and vice-mayor of Dover, England, are unseated for bribery in connection with their election.... The bill to reduce the number of members of the New South Wales Legislative Assembly from 125 to 90 passes both houses of the Legislature.

January 22.—The French Chamber of Deputies sustains the action of the government in the expulsion of Father Delsor by a vote of 285 to 243.

January 23.—The defeat of the rebel force in Uruguay is officially announced.

January 29.—British Liberals win another Parliamentary seat at the election for the Ayr Burghs district of Scotland.

January 30.—The report of the British war office reconstruction commission is made public.

February 2.—The British Parliament is opened by King Edward.

February 4.—Heads of departments of the British war office receive letters of dismissal.

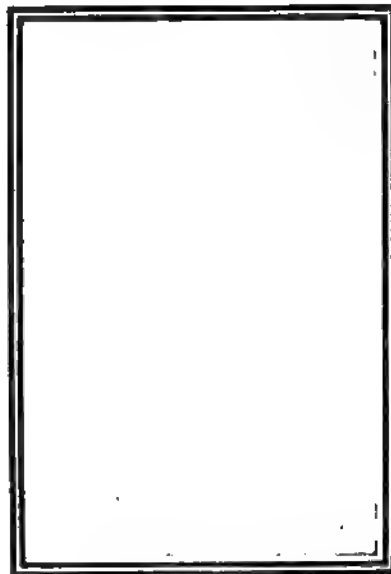
February 5.—The new Cuban tariff is made public.

February 6.—The German Reichstag

provides for the maintenance of the army for a year at its present strength.

February 13.—Liberals win in the election of a member of the British Parliament for the St. Albans division of Hertfordshire.

February 15.—In the British House of Commons, John Morley's amendment censuring the government's



SIGNOR GIOLITTI.

(New prime minister of Italy.)

fiscal policy is defeated.... Dr. Manuel Amador is chosen President of Panama.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

January 22.—The United States recognizes the provisional government of General Morales in Santo Domingo as the *de facto* government of that country.... Peru and Ecuador agree to submit to arbitration the remaining questions in dispute between them.

January 29.—Thibet authorities demand that the English armed expedition in that country be withdrawn.... The Turkish Government warns the powers that the Macedonian committees have hired Albanians to kill foreign officers in the reorganized gendarmerie.

February 1.—Cubans cover with mud the shield of the United States consulate at Cienfuegos; Minister Squiers demands the arrest and punishment of the rioters.

February 6.—Steps are taken by the United States to end the intolerable state of affairs in Santo Domingo.

February 8.—The United States invites England, Germany, and France to suggest to Russia and Japan the localization and restriction of hostilities to a small area and the neutralization of China.

February 11.—The invitation of the United States regarding the neutralization of China is extended to Italy, Austria-Hungary, The Netherlands, Denmark, Spain, and Belgium.

THE LATE SIGNOR GIUSEPPE
KANARDELLI.

(Former prime minister of Italy.)

WILLIAM O'BRIEN.

(The Irish agitator who has just retired from Parliament.)

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

January 23.—An ordinance approving coast defense is issued by the Japanese Government.

January 27.—Japan makes plans to raise by bond issues and by taxation 150,000,000 yen.

February 1.—The mobilization of the Manchurian reserves is announced from St. Petersburg.

February 3.—A conference of all the leading Japanese officials is held at Tokio.... Russian warships in the harbor at Port Arthur join the squadron outside.

February 6.—Japan, having received no reply from Russia to her note of January 8, withdraws her minister and legation from St. Petersburg, severing all diplomatic relations with Russia; the Russian minister, Baron de Rosen, is at once recalled from Tokio.

February 7.—Both Russia and Japan issue statements regarding the severance of diplomatic relations.

February 8.—The main Japanese fleet, under Vice-Admiral Togo, engages the Russian ships and batteries at Port Arthur; the Japanese torpedo boats inflicting much damage on the Russian battleships *Czarevitch* and *Retvizan* and the protected cruiser *Pallada*; the damaged ships are sunk in or near the entrance to the inner harbor.

February 9.—Admiral Togo's fleet makes a second attack on the Russian ships at Port Arthur, seriously damaging the battleship *Poltava* and the cruisers *Novik*, *Diana*, and *Askold*; as a result of the two engagements, the Japanese admiral reports 4 men killed and 54 wounded; the Russian commander reports 62 men killed and wounded on the ships, and 4 men in the coast batteries.... A fleet of five Japanese cruisers and torpedo craft, under Admiral Uriu, after landing 2,500 soldiers at Chemulpho, Korea, destroys the Russian cruisers *Vartag* and *Korietz*, with a loss in killed and wounded reported to be over 500.

February 10.—The United States addresses both Russia and Japan regarding the proposed neutralization of China.... Admiral Alexieff begins the mobilization of the Russian reserves in eastern Asia.... The Czar proclaims war with Japan.

February 11.—Admiral Alexieff is appointed to the supreme command of the Russian land and sea forces in the far East.... The Mikado of Japan issues a proclamation officially declaring war.... President Roosevelt issues a proclamation of neutrality.

February 13.—China and Germany issue proclamations of neutrality.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

January 23.—A tornado destroys Moundville, Ala., killing 37 people.... Twenty-five thousand people are driven from their homes at Allegheny, Pa., by the rising water.

January 23.—The town of Aalesund, Norway, is destroyed by fire; 10,000 people are rendered homeless; aid is sent from Norwegian and German cities.

January 25.—Nearly two hundred miners are killed as the result of a coal-mine explosion at Cheswick, Pa.

January 26.—Whitaker Wright commits suicide after having been sentenced, in London, to seven years' penal servitude.... A falling cage in a mine at Victor, Colo., kills 15 men.

COL. THOMAS V. ENTWORTH
HIGGINSON.

(Who has just celebrated his
eightieth birthday.)

February 1.—The stockholders of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company vote in favor of a new bond issue amounting to \$45,000,000.

MYNHEER JOSEPH ISRAËLS.

(Holland's most illustrious
painter, who has just celebrated his eightieth birthday.)

CONSCRIPTION IN RUSSIA.

(Drawing lots for military service.)

February 5.—The Pennsylvania Railroad announces the completion of arrangements to borrow \$50,000,000.

February 7-8.—Fire in Baltimore destroys more than 75 city blocks, covering 140 acres (see page 296).

February 13.—An issue of 50,000,000 rubles in credit notes is made by Russia.

February 15.—The Baltimore Clearing House resumes operations for the first time since the fire.

OBITUARY.

January 21.—Ex-Congressman James F. Stewart, of New Jersey, 53.

January 22.—Rt. Rev. Thomas Underwood Dudley, the Protestant Episcopal bishop of Kentucky, 66....Rev. Dr. George Salmon, provost of Trinity College, Dublin, 85.

January 25.—Sir Graham Berry, late premier of Victoria, 81....Maj. Hoyt Sherman, of Des Moines, Iowa, 76.

January 26.—Senator Emil Deschanel, of France, 85
....Prof. Ralph C. Hibbard, of Wesleyan University, 66
....George Thompson Garrison, eldest son of William Lloyd Garrison, 68
....Whitaker Wright, the English promoter, 58.

January 27.—Ex-Congressman Robert Lowry, of Indiana, 88....Ex-Congressman Stephen Wright Kellogg, of Connecticut, 82.

January 28.—Gen. Joseph Darr, a well-known veteran of the Civil War, 89.

January 30.—Dr. Phoebe J. B. Wait, one of the pioneer women of the medical profession in this country, 65.

January 31.—Josef Hoffmann, the well-known Austrian artist, 78....Prof. Jacob Cooper, of Rutgers College, New Brunswick, N. J., 78.

February 1.—M. S. Otero, a well-known business man of New Mexico.

THIBETAN CAVALRY.

(Which blocks the British march to Lassa.)

February 2.—Ex-Secretary of the Navy William C. Whitney, of New York, 63....Sir Edward Nicholas Coventry Braddon, former premier of Tasmania, 75.

February 3.—Newton Talbot, treasurer of Tufts College, 80.

February 4.—Adolph Schwartzmann, one of the founders of *Puck*, the New York comic paper, 66....Andrew Royal, the first mayor of the city of Pueblo, Colo., 70....Ex-Congressman William D. Bishop, of Connecticut, 78.

February 7.—James B. Colgate, the well-known New York financier and philanthropist, 86.

February 8.—Henry W. Oliver, the Pittsburg capitalist, steel master, and politician, 64....Joseph Powell Williams, member of the British Parliament, 68.

February 9.—Erastus Wiman, journalist, author, and promoter, 70....Charles Williams, the British journalist and war correspondent, 66.

February 10.—Nikolai K. Mikhailovskii, the Russian critic and publisher, 62.

February 13.—Rev. Dr. T. Howard Pattison, of the Rochester Theological Seminary, 65....Judge Lyman Denison Brewster, of Connecticut, 73....Ex-Congressman Josiah Patterson, of Tennessee, 67.

February 14.—Prof. Charles Emerson Beecher, of Yale University, 48.

February 15.—Senator Marcus Alonzo Hanna, of Ohio, 66 (see page 296)....Cuthbert Mills, the New York writer on financial topics....Dr. Emil Alexander de Schweinitz, of the United States Department of Agriculture, 82.

February 16.—President Carl Swenson, of Bethany College, at Lindsborg, Kan., 48.

JAMES SMITHSON.

(Who founded the Smithsonian Institution. His remains have been reinterred in Washington.)



CARTOONS ON CURRENT TOPICS.

THE RUSSIAN BEAR: "What General Sherman said was true!"—From the *Journal* (Detroit).



"WHY, I ALWAYS THOUGHT IT WAS A BEAR!"
From the *North American* (Philadelphia).

DOING STUNTS WITH THE JUGGLER.
RUSSIA: "I wasn't ready yet!"
From the *Journal* (New York).

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FIXING THE FIGHTING LIMITS.—From the *Globe* (New York).

GRAND DUKE: "Sire!"

CZAR: "What is it?"

GRAND DUKE: "Hadn't we better chuck the Yellow Kid?"

From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).

EN ROUTE.

JAPAN: "What! No note to-day? My goodness, but that man Russia does hate to answer letters!"

From the *Blade* (Toledo).

THE CZAR: "He's big enough to crush half-a-dozen Japans—but he's so hard to move."

From the *World* (Toronto).

IN A TIGHT PLACE.

"The Korean Government has decided to preserve a strict neutrality in the event of war between Japan and Russia."
—News item.—From *Punch* (London).

RUSSIA'S somewhat reluctant acceptance—with reservations—of Secretary Hay's proposition for the neutrality of China is only one indication of the empire's feeling toward the United States. Another is her refusal to exhibit at the St. Louis fair. Russia will

THE ARTFUL DODGER.—From the *World* (New York).

not believe in the neutrality of the United States, and regards Uncle Sam as the support upon which Japan has been leaning in her defiance. Russians believe that our course in the far East has been, and is, underhand and selfish. A number of British, German, and Austrian journals agree with this view, and the *Novoe Vremya* (St. Petersburg) openly asserts that it was the United States which egged on Japan to attack Russia. This phase of the war is beginning to inspire the cartoonists.

NOT TO BE DRAWN.

RUSSIAN OCCUPIER (on sufferance): "Hi! you, there! We want this drawbridge up!"

UNCLE SAM: "Sorry, but I've just gotten the proprietor's permission to sit on it."

[In face of strong opposition from Russia, the Emperor of China has ratified a commercial treaty with the United States by which certain Manchurian towns are opened to American trade.]—From *Punch* (London).

NEUTRAL, BUT CAN'T CONCEAL FEELINGS.

RUSSIA: "What you grinning about? I thought you were neutral."

UNCLE SAM: "That's my position, all right. But a man can't help smiling."—From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

MISS DEMOCRACY: "They're all passing fair, pa."
POP BRYAN: "Yep, but I never did like this one!"
From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland).

FARMER BRYAN: "Whoa! Get back inside!"
From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).

THE IDOL IS BEING SHATTERED.
From the *Times* (Minneapolis).

INSPECTING THE BRAND.

From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).

Among the American political cartoons of the month, two which hit off the attitude of Mr. Bryan on Democratic policies and candidates are reproduced on the preceding page, while the third represents the cartoonists' sharp thrusts at Mr. Gorman, occasioned by Mr. Rayner's election to the United States Senate from Maryland. On this page the candidacy of President Roosevelt is amusingly portrayed by the cartoonists of the *Brooklyn Eagle* and the *Duluth News Tribune*,

NOT STRONG ENOUGH TO TRIP HIM.

From *News Tribune* (Duluth).

respectively. The anxious search of the Democratic politicians for an "issue" in the Panama situation and the possibility of Santo Domingo's annexation to the United States are suggested in the two cartoons at the bottom of the page, from the *Minneapolis Journal* and the *St. Paul Pioneer Press*.

FISHING FOR AN ISSUE.

THE FISHERMAN: "By gum, I don't believe there's any fish there, after all!"—From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

UNCLE SAM: "Maybe I'll have to bring the boy into the house to keep him quiet."

From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).

RUSSIAN COMMANDERS IN THE FAR EAST.

BY CHARLES JOHNSTON.

ADMIRAL ALEXIEFF naturally stands first among Russia's fighters in the far East, since the Czar has given him supreme command over both the land and the sea forces of Russia. Lieutenant-General Kuropatkin, the minister of war, has unquestionably supervised the plan of campaign of Russia's land forces. We are told that he will make another visit to the seat of war in the far East, to inspect the disposition of troops he made while in Manchuria a year ago, but he is unlikely to take command in the field. Moreover, General Kuropatkin will possibly soon have work to do, or at least to supervise, in the Balkan peninsula, a region with which he is more than familiar, since, as General Sko-

beleff's chief of staff, he took part in every important engagement of the last Russo-Turkish war, being twice wounded, and several times decorated for extreme gallantry. Admiral Alexieff will exercise supreme command over Russia's far-Eastern fleet, including the strong reserves now on the high seas, and the further reserves in preparation at Cronstadt. Admiral Alexieff is familiar with Chinese waters, having for years commanded Russia's squadron in the Yellow Sea, precisely during the time when Russia was taking a foremost part in far-Eastern politics,—in the events which led, first to the proposed intervention of the powers at Seoul, before the Chino-Japanese War; next, in the vigorous effort made by the powers to prevent Japan's gaining a foothold on the Asian mainland, through the treaty of Shimonoseki; and, finally, in the negotiations, in the spring of 1898, which gave Russia the lease of Port Arthur and the contiguous country, with the railroad strip through Manchuria, the lease which is the legal foundation for Russia's presence there to-day. Admiral Alexieff also played a prominent part in the stormy events of 1900, when the Boxer insurrection convulsed the whole of China and finally led the powers to occupy Peking. Russia's leased areas in Manchuria, including the new railroad from Port Arthur, through Mukden and Harbin, to Siberia, were attacked, exactly as the legations in Peking were attacked, and Russia suffered immense loss of life and treasure in the effort to safeguard her property and rights. In the reconstruction of Manchuria and the quelling of the Boxer insurgents, the dominant part was played by Admiral Alexieff, who was, in consequence, made viceroy by the Czar, as a recognition of his rare combination of military and administrative gifts.

ADMIRAL SKRIDLOFF, who is now on his way across Siberia to take command of the Russian fleet under Admiral Alexieff, is one of the very few men in the Russian navy who has an actual war record for sea fighting. The reason, of course, is that Russia has done practically no sea fighting since the opening of the Crimean War, with the exception of one series of incidents. These incidents were as follows: When Russia declared war against Turkey, in the spring of 1877, in defense of the Servians and Bulgarians, Turkey had a number of warships in the Black

ADMIRAL IVGONY IYANOVITCH ALEXIEFF.
(Russian viceroy of the far East.)

ADMIRAL SKRIDLOFF.

(In command of Russia's Asiatic navy.)

Sea, while Russia was to all intents and purposes without a fleet. The Turkish ships were under English direction and influence, and they immediately attempted to cut off the advancing Russian army by entering the Danube and sailing up the river to intercept the Russian forces, which were coming by land through Roumania. It looked as if the presence of these Turkish warships would be an insurmountable obstacle; but this obstacle was presently overcome. A series of gallant and daring torpedo-boat attacks was made by the Russians, by which the Turkish Danube fleet was paralyzed, and the Russian army triumphantly marched southward toward the fatal field of Plevna. Admiral Skridloff, then a youth, was one of the Russians who won distinction in these torpedo-boat attacks, on the Danube, twenty-seven years ago, and it would be impossible to speak too highly of the resolution, intrepidity, and daring he showed himself, on that occasion, to possess. In the intervening years, he has perfected himself in the theory and practice of naval science, and one may look for a campaign of absorbing interest under his leadership.

REAR-ADMIRAL STACHELBERG, who commands the Vladivostok squadron, is the representative

of a type common in both the army and the navy of Russia,—the blending of Teutonic and Slavonic stocks, whereby the stolidity, steadiness, and coolness of the German are united with the devotion and idealism of the Slav. Among Russian administrators, also, both in past centuries and to-day, these German-Russians are prominent, and have rendered invaluable service to the land of their adoption, contributing a quality which the pure Slav often seems to lack. Since Baron Stachelberg has hitherto had no opportunity to distinguish himself in naval warfare, we cannot record his past performances; it may be interesting, instead, to say something of the character of the squadron he commands. It consists, primarily, of four vessels; first, the *Gromoboi*, launched in 1899, and one of the half-dozen most powerful armored cruisers afloat, practically equal to a twenty-knot battleship. The *Rossia*, launched three years earlier, is nearly as large, and has the same speed. Both these ships are more than two thousand tons heavier than Japan's heaviest cruiser, and they are armed with eight-inch quick-firing guns, and protected with an armor-belt eight inches thick. The *Rurik*, launched in 1892, also a heavily armored cruiser, is a thousand tons heavier than Japan's heaviest cruiser. The *Bogatyr*, a German-built ship, displaces 6,500 tons, with 20,000 indicated horse-power, giving her a nominal speed of twenty-three knots, and thus making her invaluable as a scout. The *Bogatyr* is one of the newest ships in the Russian fleet.

GENERAL PFLUG will have one of the most important positions in the land forces of Russia in the far East, as he is chief of staff to Admiral Alexieff, and will, therefore, take a large part of the administration of the army off the viceroy's hands. General Pflug won his spurs during the Boxer outbreak, in 1900, and was acting chief of staff to Admiral Alexieff from July, 1900, till January, 1902,—that is, through the whole period of the recent convulsions in China and Manchuria. He distinguished himself during his studies in the Academy of the General Staff, and made a record, in the Boxer outbreak, not less for extreme modesty than for conspicuous bravery, receiving a gold sword for gallantry, in 1901. When a colonel of only three years' standing, he was promoted to be major-general, for conspicuous bravery in the field, and he wears several Russian decorations, as well as the French Légion d'Honneur. General Pflug has the reputation of being a quiet, cool, and self-restrained officer, as different as possible from the vodka-drinking roisterer who does duty as a Russian officer in the popular imagination. He will need all his powers of mind and will to

grapple with the formidable problems of army administration in a region so remote and so huge as Manchuria, which, it should not be forgotten, is nearly as large as the combined areas of France and Germany, and with but one line of railroad.

LIEUTENANT-GENERAL LINÉVITCH, commander of the First Siberian Army Corps, has a long record as a fighter. He served first in the Caucasus, from 1859 till 1864, and distinguished himself in the Russo-Turkish War of 1877-78. He received the colonelcy of the Second Trans-Caspian Rifle Brigade in 1885, and there continued his study of Asiatics and their methods of fighting, among the warlike Turcomans of the regions north of Persia. Promoted to be major-general in 1891, General Linévitch was transferred, four years later, to the military command of the district of Ussuria, the Russian province which touches the north of Korea. During the Boxer outbreak of 1900, his timely intervention saved a company of English soldiers from imminent destruction. Like General Kuropatkin, Admiral Skridloff, and Baron Stachelberg, General Linévitch fought through the Turkish War of 1877-78, and, like the first and third of these warriors, he was there grievously wounded. In this Russo-Turkish War, he received the Cross of St. George of the fourth class, the decorations of this order being given only for distinguished personal valor;

and in the Boxer outbreak he was decorated with the St. George of the third class, for a like distinction.

GENERAL ZASSULICH commands the Second Siberian Army Corps, which has its administrative headquarters at Khabarovka, whither the railroad runs north along the Amur River from Vladivostok, and to which steamboats come

GRAND DUKE ALEXIS.

(Commander-in-chief of the Russian navy.)

eastward from Lake Baikal. Khabarovka is thus the most important point of Russia's line of communications to the far East, should the Manchurian railroad, which runs southeastward from Lake Baikal, be cut by an attack. General Zassulich, like the distinguished officers just mentioned, fought through the Russo-Turkish War, and was there severely wounded. He received the cross of St. George and a gold sword, in recognition of his personal bravery and valuable services. A third Siberian army corps has just been formed, but the name of the officer in command has not yet been announced.

GENERAL GERNGROSS, who commands the First East Siberian Rifle Brigade, was a protégé of General Kuropatkin, the minister of war, when the latter was governor-general of the Trans-Caspian province to the north of Persia. There he commanded the Fourth Trans-Caspian Rifle

GRAND DUKE VLADIMIR.

(Commander-in-chief of the Russian army.)

Brigade, from 1894 till 1897, when he was transferred to Manchuria, as chief of the railroad guard, which post he held when the line was attacked by the Boxers, in 1900. In the turbulent times which followed, his services earned him a St. George's Cross, "for valor."

GENERAL ANISSIMOFF, who commands the Second East Siberian Rifle Brigade, has had six years' service in the same region, and was in command of the Pe-chi-li expedition in 1900, in which he was rewarded with a gold sword, for gallantry and coolness under fire. He also won a Cross of St. George in the Russo-Turkish War, like so many of his colleagues already enumerated.

GENERAL KASHTALINSKI, who is in command of the Third East Siberian Rifle Brigade, with headquarters at Port Arthur, was also wounded in the Turkish campaign, and has seen much fighting among the Caucasus Mountains. He has several decorations, but not the coveted St. George.

GENERAL FOCK commands the Fourth East Siberian Rifles. He is a Turkish War veteran, and a Cavalier of St. George, and, like General Kuropatkin and General Gerngross, has seen much service in Trans-Caspia, among the Turcomans. He was wounded in the Boxer outbreak, and received a gold sword for bravery. He has his headquarters at Dalny.

GENERALS ALEXIEFF and TRUSSOFF command the Fifth and Sixth East Siberian Rifle brigades. The latter served for ten years in Central Asia, and was then transferred, ten years ago, to the far East, where he rendered valuable service to his country during the critical times of 1900 and 1901. Besides the Russian order of St. Vladimir, General Trussoff has been decorated with the Chinese order of the Two-Headed Dragon, and, like so many of the others, is a veteran of the Russo-Turkish War. The Seventh and Eighth Rifle corps, just formed in East Siberia, still await the appointment of their commanding officers.

THE MEN WHO ARE "DOING THINGS" FOR JAPAN.

THE leaders of the Japanese people, both in council hall and on battle-field and high seas, are not as well known to the Western world as are the leaders of Russia in the present conflict. Some of them distinguished themselves in the war with China, a decade ago, but most of the names are new to us of the West.

THE MIKADO, the Emperor of Japan, is the leader in everything. He is a progressive monarch in every sense of the word. He comes of a family which is so ancient that the oldest royal families of Europe are as mushrooms compared with him. Last month he celebrated the two-thousand-five-hundred-and-sixty-fourth anniversary of the accession of the Emperor Jimmu, the founder of his dynasty, and of whom he is the one-hundred-and-twenty-second lineal successor. Mutsuhito is a man of admirable self-restraint and unusual capabilities for work. He is an active soldier, and works at his trade of Emperor from early dawn until midnight.

Cablegrams from Japan have recently contained many references to a more or less mysterious body of men known as the Elder Statesmen. These (known as the Genro, in Japan) are now four,—the Marquis Ito, Marquis Yamagata, Count Inouye, and Count Matsugata. They are the counselors of the Mikado, a sort of advisory ministry, resembling the British Cabinet Coun-

FROM CALLEY'S HISTORY.

THE MARQUIS ITO.

FIELD MARSHAL YAMAGATA.

cil, without its authority. They are men who have become famous in war, finance, or other political departments of the government, and who served their country a generation ago, while Japan was still under the feudal system.

MARQUIS ITO, now about sixty-three years of age, has, more than any other man, made Japan a modern nation. It was he who was the moving spirit in the Japanese-Chinese War, and he is beyond a doubt one of the greatest, if not the greatest, statesman of the far East.

FIELD MARSHAL YAMAGATA.—The first Japanese leader, in point of service, is Field Marshal Yamagata, the highest military authority in the empire. He is over sixty-five years of age, a veteran of many wars, having begun service in the struggle which restored the Emperor's power, in 1868. In 1872, he was assistant secretary of war, the next year a lieutenant-general, and, in 1875, secretary of war. As chief of the royal staff in the rebellion of 1876, he was the real general-in-chief who led the imperial forces to victory. As a reward, he was promoted to the full rank of general. He has been three times prime minister, and has also held various other positions in the cabinet. In 1894, he commanded the first army that invaded Manchuria against the Chinese. After the war, he was made marquis and field marshal. After Japan had been deprived of the fruits of her victory by the action of Russia, France, and Germany, Yamagata was appointed special ambassador to St. Petersburg to negotiate for the

preservation of the independence of Korea. There he effected the treaty which is the basis of Japan's latest demands upon Russia. Considering his age and health, it is improbable that he will take the field in the present campaign against the Russians, but will act somewhat as did von Moltke in the Franco-Prussian War.

COUNT INOUE is also one of the great reformers of Japan. He has traveled extensively throughout Asia and Europe, and brought back many Western ideas which have been adopted by the Japanese. He represented his country as ambassador at the Court of Berlin several years ago.

COUNT MATSUGATA is one of the greatest of Japanese financiers. For fourteen years he was minister of finance, and has been premier twice. He is sixty-eight years old, but still vigorous. So much for the Elder Statesmen.

COUNT KATSURA.—One of the generals most conspicuous in the Korean and Manchurian campaigns against China was General Count Katsura, now the prime minister of the empire. He is a man of ability and energy, and a thoroughly trained soldier, having studied in Germany for three years. He has been through all the military and civil ranks connected with the army administration, and has been chief

take active command in the field. He is noted for his studious character and self-control.

GENERAL NODZU is perhaps the most conspicuous military man in Japan after Yamagata and Oyama. He succeeded the former in the command of the first army of invasion in the war with China. He has had a long and varied military career, and has studied in Europe and in this country. He attended our Centennial Exposition, in 1876, and studied our military system. For his services during the civil war with Saigo he was promoted to be major-general. In 1887, he became lieutenant-general, and when war began with China his division, the fifth, was the first to take the field. He defeated the Chinese at Ping-Yang, in northern Korea, and was second in command to Yamagata in the invasion of Manchuria. When sickness compelled his superior to return to Japan, Nodzu was given command and promoted to the full rank of general. He crossed southern Manchuria during the winter, driving the Chinese before him, and beating them in a great battle at Newchwang. This terminated the campaign. He was rewarded with being made a count, pensioned, and given the command of one of the three divisions of the army.

From *Lodder's Weekly*.

COUNT MATSUGATA.

secretary of the cabinet. After several years spent traveling in Europe, he returned, in 1888, to become vice-minister of war. As lieutenant-general, he commanded the third division in the war with China, which did such gallant service in Manchuria under the supreme command of General Nodzu. Upon his return, he was decorated, made a viscount, and pensioned. Since that time he has been made full general, been appointed governor-general of Formosa, and secretary of war, and two years ago he was invited by the Emperor to form a cabinet. As prime minister, he has displayed skill and tact. He is the youngest of the generals, being only fifty-six. It seems likely that he will see very active service in the field.

FIELD MARSHAL OYAMA divides honor and responsibility with Marquis Yamagata. The latter is known as the Emperor's right-hand man, while Oyama is his left. He became a major-general in 1872, and was sent to Europe, where he spent three years in study. In 1881, he became minister of war, and two years later, chief of the general staff. In 1890, he was made full general. During the war with China, he conducted the campaign which resulted in the capture of Port Arthur and Wei-hai-Wei. Marshal Oyama is at present in poor health, and may not

VISCOUNT ITO.

(Chief of naval staff.)

Samurai (noble) family, of Kaga, on the Japan Sea. His government picked him out as one of the cleverest, most daring, students of the Japanese Naval Academy, and sent him to this country to study. Before he became rear-admiral, he commanded the cruiser *Matsushima*, and the first-class battleship *Yashima*. During the war with China, he was a naval *attaché* to the Japanese embassy in Paris. Since his promotion, he has been chief of the Bureau of Naval Intelligence of the Navy Department, a part of the general staff of the Japanese war office. It was he who planned the great naval war game, last year, which was subsequently reviewed by the Emperor himself, at Kobé.

Admiral Uriu's wife is a charming Japanese lady, a graduate of Vassar, formerly Miss Nagai, sister of one of the most prominent merchants of the empire. They live in Tokio. The admiral's classmates at Annapolis recall him as a pleasant young man and a leading worker in

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VICE-ADMIRAL TOGO.

Other leading generals in the Japanese army are: General Sakuma, who commands the middle division of the army; General Oku, who commands the Tokio army of defense; General Kodama, vice-chief of the general staff; Major-General Fukushima, who commanded the Japanese forces during the Boxer troubles; Lieutenant-General Nogi, Lieutenant-General Yamaguchi, Lieutenant-General Terauchi,—the present secretary of war,—and the two Oshimas.

ADMIRAL ITO (not a relative of the famous statesman of the same name) is chief of the Japanese naval general staff. He directs the sea campaign from the admiralty office in Tokio.

ADMIRAL TOGO, who has defeated the Russian fleet at Port Arthur, is the George Dewey of the Japanese navy. His modest report of the fight at Port Arthur has won the enthusiastic admiration of British, German, and American naval officials. He has command of the three squadrons under Rear-Admiral Uriu, Rear-Admiral Kamimura, and Rear-Admiral Nashiba.

REAR-ADMIRAL SOTOKICHI URIU, forty-seven years of age, the victor of Chemulpho, graduated from the United States Naval Academy, at Annapolis, in 1881. When a cadet, he accompanied General Saigo on a Japanese expedition to Formosa, in 1874. He comes of a very old

REAR-ADMIRAL SOTOKICHI URIU.

the Young Men's Christian Association. They remember him as quiet and dignified, with a studious disposition and a determination to master English.

THE LATE SENATOR HANNA.

BY L. A. COOLIDGE.

SENATOR MARCUS ALONZO HANNA died on February 15, in Washington, D. C., after an illness of two months, culminating in an attack of typhoid fever.

Mr. Hanna's career divides itself naturally into two periods. During the first period, of nearly sixty years, he was an eminently successful business man, and little else. During the second period, he became the most influential single political leader in the United States, and a parliamentary leader whom men grown old in public service were glad to follow. There has been no other instance of a man who had devoted his life to business assuming, near its close, so high a position in politics and legislation.

Mr. Hanna came from a Virginia Quaker ancestry on his father's side. His mother was of New England descent. He was born at New Lisbon (now Lisbon), Columbiana County, Ohio, September 24, 1837. When he was fifteen years of age, his father, Dr. Leonard Hanna, moved to Cleveland, where he established a wholesale grocery firm. When twenty years old, he entered his father's employ, after attending the public schools, the Central High School, and the Western Reserve College, where he remained one year. He was with the firm until it was dissolved, in 1867, his father having died in 1861. He married, in 1864, Miss Augusta Rhodes, a daughter of Daniel P. Rhodes, founder of the Cleveland coal and iron firm of Rhodes & Card. In 1867, he became a member of that firm, which since 1885 has been known under the name of M. A. Hanna & Co. No man in Cleveland, for twenty-five years immediately preceding his death, was more influential in the commercial development of that city. He was associated with many enterprises there, and had large business interests outside the city. He met with unvarying success in his business ventures.

As early as 1868, he organized the Buckeye Oil Works; in 1872, the Cleveland Transportation Company; in 1881, the West Republic Mining Company, of Marquette; and in 1882, the Pacific Coal and Iron Company. He has for many years been a large owner and a controlling factor in the street railways of Cleveland. He built the handsome new Euclid Avenue Opera House, was a director of the Globe Iron Works, and was president of the Cleveland Union National Bank.

Mr. Hanna saw one hundred days' service in the Civil War. He was a second lieutenant in the One Hundred and Fiftieth Ohio Volunteers, which was mustered into service in May, 1864, and was engaged in the defenses of Washington. At the time of his death, he was a member of the Grand Army of the Republic and of the Loyal Legion.

It was not until 1896 that Mr. Hanna became a factor in national politics. Up to that time, he had held only one public office,—he was one of the five government directors of the Union Pacific Railroad, appointed by President Cleveland at the beginning of his first administration, and serving for six years. He had always taken more or less interest in local Ohio politics as a Republican, had been a personal friend of James A. Garfield and a supporter of John Sherman, but he was regarded solely as a business man, and was not known in politics outside the State. In 1880, he organized a business men's movement in Cleveland in the interest of the Republican candidate for President. In 1884, he was a delegate to the Republican national convention, in Chicago, and stood by John Sherman until the nomination of Blaine. He was active in the management of the Republican campaign in Ohio that year. In the Republican convention of 1888, he was the manager of the Sherman interests, and after Harrison's nomination became a member of the advisory board of the National Committee; but it was only with the approach of the election of 1896 that he entered aggressively into national politics. He had marked William McKinley as a coming man during the campaigns of 1876 and 1880, had served with him as a delegate in two national conventions, and their relations had grown constantly closer from the time they first came into political contact. For several years, they had been warm personal friends.

Long before the close of the second Cleveland administration, it became clear that no Democrat could be elected as Cleveland's successor, and Mr. Hanna, unfamiliar though he was with national politics, set out to secure McKinley's nomination as the Republican candidate. The name of McKinley was identified in the popular imagination with the policy of protection, in attempting to overthrow which the Cleveland administration had brought a period of financial distress upon the country. Mr. Hanna seized

this advantage, and built up an organization with which to make the popular feeling effective. There had never before been so well organized a campaign for the control of a national convention. Hanna proved himself a master of political management. Weeks before the meeting of the convention, the nomination of McKinley was already assured, in spite of the opposition of great political captains who had hitherto been regarded as invincible in the Republican organization, and in spite of the candidacy of Thomas B. Reed, who had earned the gratitude of his party by his conduct as Speaker of the House of Representatives.

The convention which met on June 16, 1896, nominated McKinley on the first ballot. Mr. Hanna, at Mr. McKinley's request, became chairman of the Republican National Committee, and from that time until his death he was the strongest individual force in national politics. He conducted the campaign for election with an ability as extraordinary as that which he had shown in the canvass for nomination. He combined the business interests of the country in support of the Republican candidate, and until McKinley's death, in 1901, he held them firmly together behind the Republican organization, conducting a second campaign, as chairman of the National Committee in 1900, on lines similar to those which had been followed in 1896.

After the inauguration of McKinley, on March 4, 1897, John Sherman became Secretary of State. Governor Bushnell appointed Mr. Hanna to the vacancy thus created in the Senate. He was subsequently elected Senator by the Ohio Legislature to fill out Sherman's unexpired term, was elected for the full term beginning on March 5, 1899, and was elected, on January 13, 1904, for a second full term expiring in 1911. When first chosen, it was by a majority of only one vote. At his last election, he received a majority of ninety.

In the Senate, Mr. Hanna almost from the beginning assumed a position of influence, in spite of the tradition that long service in the Senate is essential to leadership in that body. He exhibited a capacity for legislation which filled with astonishment those who had regarded him as simply a business man in politics. He developed a capacity for effective debate which placed him at once among the strong men in Congress. His first important work was in connection with the ship-subsidy bill, which he introduced on December 19, 1898. He became the champion of the bill in committee and on the floor, and made several speeches in its support which at-

tracted great attention. The bill passed the Senate, but did not pass the House. Senator Hanna took great interest in the subject of the inter-oceanic canal. He opposed the Nicaragua route on the ground that it was impracticable. On June 5, 1902, he delivered a speech in favor of the selection of the Panama route which has become famous because it is known to have changed enough votes in the Senate to insure a majority for Panama. In all legislation affecting business interests, Senator Hanna was regarded as one of the two or three strongest men in the Senate. He was a member of the Commerce Committee, of the Naval Affairs Committee, and of the Committee on Finance. At the beginning of the present session, he was made chairman of the Committee on Interoceanic Canals. Until he entered the Senate, Mr. Hanna had never made a speech of any kind. Before his death, he had become recognized, not only as one of the most effective debaters in Congress, but as one of the most effective speakers on the stump. In the campaign of 1900, he spoke with great success in several Western States.

Of equal importance with his work on the National Committee and in the Senate in fixing Mr. Hanna's place in the popular estimation was his work in connection with the Civic Federation, which he helped to organize, and in which he served as chairman of the executive committee. In the last years of his life, he believed that he had a mission to help in the adjustment of the differences between capital and labor. Though at the end of the campaign of 1896 he was regarded as peculiarly the representative of capital, and was bitterly lampooned as the friend of the trusts, he acquired, through his work in the Civic Federation, the complete confidence of organized labor, and he was instrumental in putting an end to more than one strike which threatened disastrous results. At Chautauqua, N. Y., on August 9, 1902, he said :

To say that labor leaders are in the wrong, is not always true; to say that the majority of them do not intend to do right, is a mistake. My theory is that if you bring men together in a way to make them know each other, and if you appeal to the head and the heart, you establish a bond between the two factions that cannot be broken. The Civic Federation is trying to establish a condition of absolute confidence between employer and employee. . . . We remember the Golden Rule, and try to live up to its principle. This is the only way that I know to settle the dispute between capital and labor.

Mr. Hanna made no secret of his pride in his work in connection with the Civic Federation, which he valued more than his achievements in business or in politics.

NORTH CHARLES AND BALTIMORE STREETS, THE HEART OF THE BUSINESS DISTRICT.

(Looking down Baltimore Street, where the Carrollton Hotel, the B. & O. R. R. office, banks, etc., were.)

THE BALTIMORE FIRE.

BY JOSEPH M. ROGERS.

FIRE broke out in Baltimore at 11 o'clock on Sunday morning, February 7, and burned for thirty hours, when it was stopped, largely because a fortunate shift of the wind made the Basin and Jones Falls barriers where fire-engines could be of some use. Up to this time, all efforts by water or dynamite to restrain its limits had been unavailing. If the wind had maintained its original direction, it is difficult to see what could have been left of the city. The western limit was Liberty Street, and the public buildings were saved after all hope had been abandoned. On the north, the flames swept to Lexington Street and stopped. In the section named, there is not a single structure standing that is habitable; and with the exception of a few steel buildings, all ruins will have to come down.

It would be useless at this time to attempt

any account of the conflagration itself. None of the lurid descriptions in the daily press gave any conception of the scene of destruction. No words are adequate to depict, not only the loss as it occurred, but the terror of the night when it seemed that nothing could be saved. At 10 o'clock Sunday night, the city seemed doomed, when the reprieve suddenly came, and this change, so unexpected, has had much to do with the cheerful spirit of the people, who in spite of their losses cannot but remember how much greater they seemed likely to be.

The origin of the fire is a mystery, all guesses being for one reason or another unsatisfactory or inconclusive. What is known is that several explosions took place which were the cause of the fire's spread. But for these, the firemen could probably have confined the damage to the Hurst Building. The high wind blowing soon

scattered the burning *débris* in all directions, so that help was asked from cities as far distant as New York. The response was prompt, and the work as effective as possible. One lesson of the fire undoubtedly is that the city had inadequate protection.

What was the loss? That is the first question that most persons ask, and they have been greatly confused by the widely varying estimates which have been given. At this writing, it is impossible to give that detail which is desirable. All estimates are subject to material revision. A very persistent and painstaking search for a conservative estimate leads to the view that the actual material loss was in the neighborhood of \$80,000,000, or possibly a little less, and that the insurance on this is in the neighborhood of \$65,000,000, most of which will be promptly paid. A few companies will not be able to pay

all, but each day that passes makes it seem more certain that the man who had an insurance policy will get most of his money.

There are some estimates which place the loss as low as \$50,000,000; but these seem ultra-conservative. Others talk of \$150,000,000, and these are men of intelligence; but they surely include in this sum the ultimate loss from suspension of business, and this is an item which cannot at this time be properly guessed at, nor is it exactly pertinent to the occasion except as it has to do with the future of the city.

Perhaps the most curious feature of the conflagration is that it was almost entirely confined to the wholesale and financial centers of the town. There were few important factories burned, very few large retail stores, almost no residences, and only a few tenements. Therefore, the city has escaped what have been the most terrible fea-

tures of other great conflagrations,—the presence of hundreds or thousands of homeless persons, and the destruction of large manufacturing establishments, which are the normal source of so much wealth to any community. Thus, a wholesale grocery house may go up with a million dollars' worth of stock, but the courageous and hopeful proprietor can send telegrams the country over and get a new stock as fast as trains can carry it. It is true that he must lose some business in the meantime, but he can regenerate his trade in quick order if he have the credit and the courage. On the other hand, a cotton mill or a carpet mill, for instance, once destroyed, cannot be replaced for many months, and in the meantime the employees are either out of work or have gone elsewhere, and the business is badly crippled. As a rule, Baltimore has escaped from a great deal of that sort of loss. Perhaps the industry that is suffering most is that of printing and publishing. About nine-tenths of such establishments were consumed in the fire, including all the daily newspapers but one. In this, as in other industries, it must be remembered that the insurance was based on the existing value of the plants destroyed, and that in nearly every case much more expensive ones must be purchased. This means an increase in capitalization or a large amount of credit, and the gross losses can never be estimated.

There are some business men who will make no attempt to resume, as they will be unable to make the necessary arrangements. Some will take this opportunity to go out of business, having accumulated sufficient to retire. But already a very great proportion have not only announced their intention to resume, but a great many have already done so. On Monday, while the flames were eating up their millions, business men were fighting for telegraph facilities to order new goods from Philadelphia, New York, and elsewhere. Hundreds of commercial travelers left the city while the smoke was still rolling heaven-high to seek for new business out of the ashes of the old. This spirit is peculiarly American, and it does not seem to be confined to any one section of the country. The most enthusiastic optimist could see no difference between the attitude of the Baltimore merchant and that of the Chicago man under the same circumstances: There was none of the conservatism in evidence for which the city is so noted. Every vacant warehouse in the city was snapped up for headquarters, and many of the private houses, even those in the aristocratic quarter, were temporarily changed into business houses. At the time this is written, the courage and hopefulness of the Baltimore people are simply

beautiful. On Tuesday the streets of the city looked something like circus day. Everybody was out, the pretty girls in full force, and all seemed happy and cheerful. Of course, these were not the direct losers. Among those, there is no disposition to deny the seriousness of the situation. Sentiment is exceedingly essential in business, but it cannot do everything. So far as sentiment can help, the city has had no lack. From every city in the country, from Europe, even from New Zealand, came messages of sympathy and offers of aid.

For reasons already stated, the loss upon the wage-earner in property has been small, and there is little destitution as yet, though many thousand wage-earners are unemployed. Many of the merchants are paying them pending resumption of operations. Some are unable, financially, to do so, and some are expecting to do so as soon as they find where they stand and can make arrangements for getting money from the banks. The city has had many offers of relief, but has accepted none, and hopes it will not be necessary, a fine manifestation of courage and independence. The only friction that has developed is over the federal troops, which the city would like to have for police purposes, to relieve the local militia, but which the governor declines to sanction. Otherwise, there has been complete harmony throughout between State, city, and federal officials, barring the one incident when the Legislature reproved General Riggs for suspending all passes and then promptly expunged its action from the record.

The necessity of publishing this article so soon after the disaster makes it impossible to give that complete view which is desirable, but the following is the best that can be learned as to the public and private intentions of the people:

At the last census, there were 508,957 people in the city, and in the three and a half years that have passed the number has been increased by probably 30,000. There were, in 1900, 6,359 manufacturing establishments in the city, the most important of which escaped loss. Of the estimated 2,400 buildings destroyed, most had been built for many years, and not more than one hundred were real modern structures, though there were a thousand which would have proved sufficient for all ordinary purposes for many years to come. In some of the buildings destroyed there was a large amount of clothing made, a business for which the city is celebrated, as well as tobacco manufactories and distilling or rectifying plants. These have been largely swept away, but are easily replaced. The chief industry that was wiped out was that of oysters, for which the city has been so long noted. The

THE PRATT STREET WHARF.—BALTIMORE'S GREAT SHIPPING CENTER.

wharves and oyster houses are gone, though the trade is not destroyed, except for this winter's packing, which will amount to very little. The lumbering interest, in all its branches, was largely swept away.

Relatively, Baltimore has been growing in export trade for some years. Of Atlantic ports, it is third in foreign trade, and has been second in exports, largely due to grain shipments, and this industry will not be affected, as the elevators and terminal facilities at Locust Point and elsewhere have not been touched. On the other hand, it is hoped that this branch of business will be greatly increased, as the railroads have been increasing facilities and the port charges are very low as compared with other cities. The jobbing trade is the one which is at present most threatened. There has been a large amount of sentiment expended upon Baltimoreans, and they are now waiting to see how it is to materialize. They will in many instances expect and receive long time credits from those with whom they have traded heavily in the past. They will endeavor

to keep as many of their own customers as possible, and expect prompt payment. So far, there is much reason to believe that these expectations will be justified. The commercial travelers report that every possible courtesy is being extended, and it is for the leading merchants more a question of getting goods to sell than being able to sell them. Such a tremendous disturbance of the ordinary course of business will result in much friction. It is unfortunate for Baltimore that the fire came just at a time when the merchants were soliciting spring trade. In so far as they can secure goods in a reasonable time to deliver to their customers, who reside very largely in the South, they will be able to get orders. In many instances this will be impossible, and what is really worrying the merchants individually and the people as a whole is this: it is inevitable that a large amount of trade of an immediate character must temporarily be diverted from the city because of the inexorable laws of trade. How much of that trade can be regained? The hope is expressed that all of it can be regained,

and that the stimulus created by the present crisis will in the end result in a better trade for the city than ever, just as it is certain to result in a better-appearing city.

This last is a matter of some interest. So far, it has been impossible to agree on any concerted action of authorities, but the mayor has taken the situation in his hands to this extent, that he will not permit the erection of any new building pending arrangements for widening many of the streets. A commission appointed for the purpose has already advised the widening of two streets and the extension of another. This is only a beginning. In the lower part of the city, the streets were little better than alleyways, and the sewerage was inefficient. As there are many hills in the city, after a rain-storm there was always a flood in the lower part of the town, and the stench from surface garbage was most offensive, and had a deterrent effect on business. There is no doubt that very important and radical, as well as very expensive, plans will be undertaken for reconstruction; but these involve so many serious problems, with so little present technical knowl-

edge, that they are at present only in the air. The cost to the municipality is going to be tremendous, and this is a serious consideration. Under existing laws, it is not possible to issue anything like enough bonds to do the work of repaving, straightening, and sewerage. The total expense is figured at from \$25,000,000 to \$50,000,000, and the lesser amount is probably excessive. Even if the Legislature give the authority to increase the debt, and guarantee on the part of the State at least a portion of the interest, it is evident that the burden will be heavy. There are those who think it possible to get the federal government to guarantee some of the bonds, but the proposition finds little encouragement. All the financial institutions are intact, have reopened for business, and they will do what they can to help the new financing of the city; but it is evident that if they are able to take care of the merchants they will be doing all that ought reasonably to be expected. Their promptitude in resuming business has had an excellent effect in New York, Philadelphia, and elsewhere. Many financial institutions have

offered to loan the city large sums, but the plain truth is that until an adequate survey is made of the actual loss it is useless to speculate on what will be necessary to make the town as attractive and as efficient as is wanted. No one doubts that the means will be found, and that the city will rise from its ashes a richer and more prosperous community than before.

There is one feature of the fire that will interest every city in the world. It is known that the heat must have exceeded 2,800 degrees Fahrenheit, which is about the temperature that melts cast iron. It is believed that it reached 3,500 degrees. In this crucible, granite melted like lead. Even on the borders of the fire, limestone seemed like tinder. Only one class of structures survived—the modern steel-construction office building. There were comparatively few of these, but the Continental Trust Building, designed by Burnham, of Chicago, stands up in the six hundred acres of ashes a monument of modern engineering. The architect has in-

spected it, and finds the steel and brick intact, and that only a moderate sum will be necessary to put it in commission once more.

This is instructive, and undoubtedly cheering, seeing that so many of these skyscrapers are being built. Architecturally, it appears that nothing is fireproof but steel incased with brick, terra-cotta, and cement.

This is interesting because of the talk in Baltimore of making seven stories the maximum height of future buildings. It is only the tallest that have survived.

But in spite of the courage of the whole people, there will be some tremendous individual losses; and the manner in which the business and financial men stand together, the way in which the city undertakes to carry out its share of the burden, will decide how soon and how complete will be the recovery. If there be any virtue in hope and in promises, it may be predicted that this will be accomplished in record time.

LESSONS OF THE BALTIMORE DISASTER.

BY WILLIAM J. FRYER.

THE list of conflagrations in our American cities is a long one. At its head stands Chicago, with its great fire in 1871, when 17,340 buildings were destroyed and the property loss was \$105,000,000. Baltimore takes second place, the recent fire having destroyed some 2,600 buildings, with a property loss approximating \$85,000,000. Boston now holds the third place, 776 buildings having been destroyed in the fire of 1872, with a property loss of \$75,000,000. The loss of life in the Chicago conflagration was 250; in Baltimore, by a miracle of good fortune, only one life was lost, that of a fireman. Chicago still retains its tragic preëminence for loss of life in any great or small fire, the Iroquois Theater disaster having resulted in the death of 591 persons. The total loss of life and the total amount of property destroyed in the dozen or more conflagrations that have occurred since the Chicago event are appalling.

The value of property annually destroyed by fires in the United States amounts to almost incredible figures. Last year—1903—it is estimated at \$165,000,000, an amount equivalent to one-half of the total value of last year's wheat crop in this country. In the city of New York alone, the fire loss, last year, is recorded at

\$5,000,000. Many of the fires are willfully set, and nearly all of them are preventable. The loss is made none the less to the country by insurance. Insurance creates no wealth to replace that destroyed by fire. It is at best a system of distribution, by means of which the premiums of those whose property does not burn are made to recoup the losses of those who are less careful or less fortunate. Insurance compensates individuals, but the loss of wealth to the nation is absolute. It is therefore to the interest of every person that buildings everywhere should be safely and well constructed, and that every precaution should be taken against the spread of fire. No economic problem exceeds in importance the reduction of the vast annual loss by fire in this country.

Baltimore was a favorite city for insurance risks. The buildings, generally, were not excessively high, the principal streets were of goodly width, and the city was considered a fairly protected place. The water-supply was deemed to be good, as it is. The fire department was deemed to be good, but when it was put to an unusual test the fire-engines were found to be lacking in power and inadequate in number, and the force of firemen altogether too

small. It was found, too, that the police force of the city was inadequate in numbers, and for this reason was not properly organized to care for the city by day and by night during the trying period of the fire. The moral hazard, carelessness, negligence, etc., which increase in proportion to the number of tenants, was deemed good, and the motive for incendiarism was below the average of cities.

The Baltimore fire started on Sunday forenoon, the seventh day of February, in a large wholesale dry-goods building situated in an exceptionally good position for effective handling by the fire department in the event of a fire starting in that structure, by reason of its several street frontages. There was no business traffic on the streets, it being Sunday, and the streets were free from snow and the hydrants were in working order. A strong wind was blowing, but this unfavorable condition should have been accepted by the firemen simply as a warning that careful, skillful, and vigorous work was to be done. That fire should not have got away from a competent chief of a well-equipped fire department, but it did, and in short order, too. The heavily laden floors in the burning building, together with the roof, fell in, as might have been expected, and a shower of blazing embers was sent skyward and blown by the wind over on to the roofs of different buildings, starting so many separate fires that proper attention could not, or was not, given to any one of them in particular. The chief of the fire department was early disabled by an electric wire, and the force left without a head. The men, seeing that the fire had passed beyond their control, became discouraged, although continuing to do what they thought was for the best. Then for thirty-eight hours the fire swept unopposed through the heart of the business section of the city, until the creek was reached, where it was halted.

In the path of a furnace-blast like that in Baltimore, few buildings, whether of so-called fireproof construction or of ordinary construction, could escape being wrecked or totally destroyed. One or two buildings did escape by reason of their being so surrounded by higher buildings that the fire passed over them. In the Chicago conflagration, the flames had miles of frame buildings to feed upon. In the Boston

conflagration, the fire destroyed a business section consisting mainly of substantial buildings. In Baltimore, the buildings were of a mixed character, some fireproof, of ordinary height, many non-fireproof, with different degrees of merit, quite a number entirely of wood, and a few were modern tall steel skeleton fireproof buildings, commonly called skyscrapers. Of the latter, there were not a sufficient number to act as buffers to the wind-driven flames in checking the advance of the fire. The skyscraper buildings themselves stood the test of fire quite as well as could be reasonably expected. The larger proportion of the buildings in the burned district were old and poorly constructed, and really needed to be rebuilt. The history of destruction and renewal will repeat itself in the case of Baltimore, and it will come to be a better-built and better-protected, and no doubt a more beautiful, city.

To Baltimore, the dearly bought experience shows that the narrow and crooked streets, or at least some of them at intervals of space, in the business district, should be widened and straightened, and frequent open spaces provided, not only for beauty, but for safety; that the electric-light, telegraph, and telephone wires in the streets should be placed in underground conduits; that the fire department should be strengthened by additional men and additional engines and appliances; that a greater number of fire-hydrants, and possibly an increased water-supply, is needed; that the police force should be largely added to; and that a newer and more stringent ordinance regulating the construction of buildings should be adopted before the work of rebuilding in the burned district is begun.

The lessons of Baltimore's terrible disaster apply to all other cities,—to most cities, indeed, with a greater force than to Baltimore. A great municipal awakening is needed everywhere. In both large and small cities, the municipal governments have not kept pace with the growth in population and the needs of the times. Baltimore has an opportune time for radical improvements, but in all other cities prompt and radical civic improvements are necessary for the better security of life and property, whatever the cost may be. The money so expended will be better than ashes and regret.



DESERT IRRIGATION, THE FIRST SOAKING.

DESERT IRRIGATION IN THE FAR WEST.

BY L. R. FREEMAN.

MOST appropriately labeled was the Colorado Desert when the cowboy tagged it with the appellation "Maverick of Nature." Thirsty with an age-long thirst, lonely, cheerless, unclaimed, no lost steer of the ranges was ever more pitifully desolate than this vast stretch of sand, sage-brush, rocks, and cactus that makes up so great a portion of western Arizona and southern California. The East, in general, knows it but as a spot on the map, and the "traveled East" as, perhaps, but a recollection of a bad day's journey that serves, in the nature of a background of contrast, to bring out the more vividly the memories of the roses of Pasadena and the oranges of Riverside. And even the West knows it but vaguely as a land of lost mines and lost prospectors, and as a district to the borders of which the consumptive in his last stage is sent to gain a respite of a few weeks of sun baked existence.

Of all the hundred and twenty million acres of reclaimable land in the arid West, this of the

Colorado is the only portion that is desert in the true sense of the word. Other sections have few and irregular rains as compared with the East and the North, but they raise bountiful crops when moisture is vouchsafed them, and have trees,—often forests,—and are mostly fair lands to look upon. They are not waste; not desert. Time was, even in the memory of those now living, when nature was more lavish with them in rain and vegetation than it is to day.

But the drear, brown valley of the Colorado was a desert when the first thinning trains of Argonauts marked their back courses across its dusty stretches with lines of bleaching bones; was a desert when Nineveh and Babylon flourished and an empire centered where now the Sahara sands beat against the pyramids; has been a desert since the time, cons back, when the Pacific drew away to the Gulf of California and left uncovered its old bottom in shining terraces of white sand. And had not our government finally awakened to the fact that here in

AN EXCAVATING MACHINE BEGINNING WORK ON A DESERT CANAL.

this unpeopled region, this anathematized land, there lies hidden, waiting but the wash of water to uncover it, a wealth beside which the practical value of our blood-bought tropical islands seems trifling, and an actual capacity for production that shames the wildest tales told of the agricultural achievements of the great Mississippi Valley in its best days, it would have remained desert till time had ceased to be. For, as the gauntest, wildest-eyed, farthest-strayed "maverick" still carries the framework upon which shelter and fodder will build many hundred-weight of the choicest beef, so this apparently worthless expanse, forbidding to the last degree in its sun-parched barrenness, is pregnant with possibilities that fairly stagger the mind in their contemplation.

The prime elements of production,—produc-

tion in its agricultural, not its economic, sense,—are soil, vegetable life in some form, and favorable climatic conditions. Climate depends principally upon heat and moisture, and in the latter is found the key to the desert treasure-house, even to its inner vaults of mineral wealth.

With the water once on the land, the rest is comparatively easy, and for the last decade men have labored—disinterestedly and otherwise—to show how such water can be found, diverted, and distributed. Irrigation congresses have met and discussed the different phases of the problem at length and in great particularity. Gradually the people have learned of the movement and approved. A comprehensive system of dissemination of the true facts regarding the redemption of arid land was devised by those interested in the work, and as a result, public

sentiment became so pronounced in its favor that in 1902 Congress was induced to pass the Reclamation Act,—a clear, explicit measure providing that the money derived from the sale of public lands should be devoted to the erection of dams, reservoirs, and canals to be used in the irrigation of the arid districts of the West.

Since the passage of the law, numerous corps of engineers, men of the highest technical ability, that the Government has in its employ, have been engaged in examining sites with reference to their fitness for the erection of irrigation works. Hydrographic surveys have been made, including the gauging of rivers—both as to flow and as to silt carried—for purposes of soil-analysis and the determination of evaporation. Many projects have been passed up as impracticable for all time; others, as such for a decade or more; while in the cases of a favored few, recommendations are made for immediate construction. And these engineers are unanimous in their opinion that the greatest opportunity for reclamation lies in the despised desert along the Colorado River.

Nor need the claims of these engineers be accepted *ex cathedra*. The practicability of irrigating this same desert of the Colorado has already been most completely and conclusively demonstrated, and the demonstration has not been in the form of a mere experiment carried on under peculiar and favorable conditions, but rather as a bold and unique financial venture, carried to a successful conclusion by private enterprise on a scale second only to that upon which the Government will shortly begin to operate.

The Imperial Valley in southeastern California,

A DIPPER DREDGE AT WORK ON A DESERT CANAL.

up to the summer of 1900, was as true to its name of desert as any stretch of rainless, sun-dried land on the face of the globe. During the year of 1902, crops were produced in this valley that averaged from sixty to eighty dollars for each of the one hundred and sixty-five thousand acres irrigated. This result was obtained, and this unparalleled transformation effected, by running a sixty-mile canal from the Colorado River and distributing its silt-laden waters over the gently sloping valley-floor, where once was the bottom of a great inland sea. The land was settled, as fast as water was available, by farmers from all parts of the country, and in less than two years from the time that water first began to flow upon the land the population of the valley was in excess of ten thousand. Half a dozen prosperous towns sprang at once into existence, several of which now have banks, refrigerating and electrical plants, and all the other conveniences and comforts of old communities.

The great yields in this new desert garden have been obtained from fields of barley, wheat, alfalfa, sorghum, milo maize, and Kaffir and Egyptian corn, but experimental plots of rice, sugar beets, cotton, vegetables, melons, and many other sub-tropical products have proved each well suited to the conditions there prevailing. In fact, the whole Imperial enterprise will be of inestimable value to the Govern-

semi-tropical and almost rainless deserts; both empty into great landlocked arms of the sea at nearly the same latitude,—thirty-two degrees north. Each has deposited a great delta at its mouth, and has vast alluvial areas along its lower length. Both overflow in summer at a time when irrigation is most needed, and the crops of the Mojave and Yuma Indians fail when the flood is light, just as do those of the Nile farmers when similar conditions prevail there. Finally, the minimum flow of each river is more than equal to the irrigating of its borderlands, and the Colorado will prove, as has the Nile, the

SECTION OF IRRIGATION CANAL, SHOWING ENORMOUS FLOW OF WATER.

ment in furnishing a parallel by which to direct its own vaster work of reclamation and colonization.

Bordering on the Colorado from the point where it emerges from its Grand Cañon and begins the last stage of its seaward journey to Yuma, Ariz., where it enters Mexican territory, lie over a half a million of acres of land that can be reached by diversion canals. This area will be increased to one million two hundred thousand acres when the Government's plans are carried out, and will be capable of supporting an aggregate population greater than that now living in the famous irrigated valleys of the Nile and the Po. The soil of this district is a sedimentary deposit of vast depth and amazing richness; its climate is sub-tropical, and but slightly more severe than that of Egypt and Italy, and the experiment stations have shown that, product for product, it will check with the most fertile sections of either

means of rendering productive and habitable its adjacent rainless regions, that otherwise would be worse than waste.

The lesser irrigation enterprises that have been launched upon the Colorado in the past have found their chief obstacle to lie in the accumulation in their canals of the sediment with which the water is so heavily charged. This silt is mostly worn from the cañon-walls and carried down from the upper courses of the river. The grade of the latter is so flat through the desert

The parallel between the Colorado and the Nile is most remarkable. Both rise among snow-covered mountains at great distances from their mouths and traverse

A TEN-FOOT GROWTH OF ALFALFA, IN SIX MONTHS, FROM A DESERT RANCH.

that a diversion canal must have so slight a fall and so low a velocity that it cannot clear itself of the precipitated sediment. By its present plans, the Government expects to utilize this extraneous matter by impounding it upon some of the vast gravelly expanses, where there is little soil at present, by means of high dams, thus securing fall for the canals, increasing the irrigable land, and eliminating much of the silt at the same time.

The plans of the government hydrographers, as now outlined, call for a series of reservoirs along the river, to be formed by building high dams at points where the opportunities for storage appear favorable. Each dam is to be provided with a sluiceway through its base, in order that the waters may be drawn off as desired, and also to provide a means of flushing out the surplus accumulations of sediment. Canals of great size, and of a declivity sufficient to carry the silt in suspension and not involve destructive erosion, will run from the tops of the dams.

The fall of the river is so slight that reservoirs of enormous capacity may be constructed without involving dams of impracticable height.

Each reservoir will gradually fill with sediment, and when this occurs its surface will be drawn down from 20 to 40 feet, thus converting all the reservoir site, except the river-channel, into farming land. Then, whenever desired, the sluices may be closed and irrigation and fertilization accomplished as cheaply and with better effect than by the natural overflow upon which the Nile valley depends.

It has been estimated, as a result of recent analyses, that water from the Colorado sufficient to cover an acre of land to the depth of three feet contains fertilizer to the value of more than ten dollars. This annual inundation, then, of a deep alluvial soil that is made up of little but fertilizers in the first place, in conjunction with the semi-tropic climate and additional irrigation as the crops may demand, will make farming possible the year round, and it is confidently expected that an acreage production will be attained without precedent in history.

Four or more dams, from 100 to 300 feet in height, are to be constructed, and from each is to run a main irrigating canal having a bottom width of not less than 80 feet and a depth of 15

feet or over. These canals will in themselves afford a direct and efficient system of navigation, making the slow and uncertain river-boating of to-day a thing of the past.

The power to be developed at each dam will not be the least item of its usefulness. On account of the abundance of water, the installment of turbine plants is considered feasible, and the power generated will be in proportion to the height of the dam. This electrical energy will be used in operating river steamers,—through the medium of storage batteries,—running trolley lines, and pumping water to sections where the topography of the intervening country will not permit of canals. It is even proposed to operate the desert divisions of the transcontinental railroads with electricity from these river plants, and a transmission line to Jerome, Ariz., for the use of the United Verde copper mine at that point, is one of the possibilities. Both schemes are eminently practicable, and the saving of fuel to the companies interested would be immense, to say nothing of the value of an assured continuity of service.

The outside cost of this splendid system of desert irrigation is placed by the engineers at

\$22,000,000, while the values to be created—literally created—through its agency are beyond the possibilities of computation. Irrigated land, as such, in California and Arizona has sold as high as \$1,800 an acre, and under the poorest of water systems an acre is never worth less than \$100. Based even on the latter figure, the 1,200,000 acres to be reclaimed would be worth \$120,000,000. Electrical energy to exceed 250,000 horse-power, conservatively worth \$100,000,000, will be easily developed, and the improvement to navigation cannot be reckoned at less than \$10,000,000. This gives a neat little total of \$230,000,000 to be added to the national wealth on the completion of the system as now outlined, a sum beside which the expenditure necessary to bring it into being seems as nothing.

The details of the plan by which this reclaimed land can be secured by settlers have not yet been fully worked out, but it is probable that some systematic scheme of colonization will be devised that will preclude the possibility of the haphazard, first-come-first-served kind of rushes that have marked the opening of public lands in the past. Irrigation and colonization go hand-

in hand. To irrigate is to populate, and colonization is systematic population.

The land will be sold to the settlers on very easy terms, and every effort will be made to see that only those who will live upon and till their holdings are given places. Enough will be charged to cover the cost of irrigation improvements, and the money will be used in further development. The fund is thus made perpetual until all the arid lands are reclaimed.

Water will not be sold to any one owner for a tract exceeding 160 acres. Even this quarter-section is more than one man can farm profitably. Irrigated land in the Southwest is from ten to fifty times more productive than in regions depending upon rain alone, but requires care in proportion to the crops it yields. It has been well said that 40 acres of irrigated land is enough, 80 an abundance, 160 a misfortune, and 320 a calamity. Almost the only failures under this new method of farming are traceable to a desire on the part of newcomers to become rich in a few seasons, which leads them to water more land than they can care for.

As to the conditions of life that will obtain in this greater Southwest, the southern California of to-day furnishes, perhaps, the best example. The small, intensive farm, or ranch, scientifically worked, is the rule. The dependence of

all upon water has caused a merging of individual into community interest, and a practical elimination of competition as between man and man. This spirit, first engendered in the people by the exigencies of the water situation, has spread to the packing, transportation, and marketing of their products, and to-day the southern California coöperative associations are all but absolute in their fields of endeavor.

The farmer himself is, of necessity, a broad, intelligent, progressive type of a man, and, above all, a worker; the very agricultural antithesis of that other farmer who hibernates all winter, seeds his ground in the spring, and leaves the rest to Providence. There is no room for the man who will not do for himself here. Providence keeps up a good flow of water in the rivers, but she will not open a headgate or stop an overflow. Brain is indispensable in irrigation to give direction to brawn; but brawn, and willing brawn at that, is none the less necessary for that part of the work which it alone can accomplish.

And so even this new inland empire, with all that it offers in enhanced opportunity and wider democracy, cannot suspend that universal law which gives results to the worker and makes the harvest proportional to the effort between the sowing and the reaping.

AN INTERVIEW WITH THE POPE.

I HAVE just interviewed his Holiness the Pope Pius X. I was introduced by the head of the Irish College. As we entered the Pope's apartment all the pomp and ceremony of the court seemed to be left behind. The small room we entered was a plain one. There was a writing-table, on which was a crucifix and an inkstand. His Holiness had risen, and was standing beside and behind the table. I knelt and kissed his hand, and immediately he bade me rise, drew a chair close to his own, and motioned us to be seated as he faced his own chair round toward us.

A SIMPLE RECEPTION.

His reception was as simple as if he were still a plain parish priest. A marvelous charm and attractiveness, however, emanated as a halo from his presence, which held and fascinated one from the moment of entering that little room. Never before have I experienced the influence of such personal magnetism, and I quite failed to analyze the reason of that feeling when I looked at the old man sitting in front of me, our knees almost touching.

A tuft of rather disheveled gray hair from beneath the white skullcap straggled across his forehead, a forehead wrinkled along its lower half by many lines, from underneath which his deep-set, wonderful dark eyes gleamed out. Expressive eyes they are, that gaze out benignly, lovingly, and then will suddenly look with a keen, searching earnestness into the back of yours like the steel-touch of crossing swords.

I at once addressed his Holiness on the subject of my mission. For months past, I told him, I had been journeying to and fro as an ambassador of the press among the martyred Christians of Macedonia. I repeated to the august successor of the apostles the plaintive cry which the man of Macedonia uttered so long ago, "Come over and help us." And I supplemented and supported my appeal by showing the Pope the collection of photographs which I had taken illustrating the miseries of the refugees, especially of the great crowd of pitiful folk which had taken refuge in the monastery of Rjela.

His Holiness was intensely interested and most sympathetic, and I was delighted to tell him how grateful the unfortunate victims of 'Turkish savagery' had been when his Holiness' personal gift of four thousand francs had reached

them—the first of all the gifts they had received from the outside world.

The Pope asked me many questions as he turned over the photographs, making sympathetic comment. I told him that I had been there when he had sent his gift of four thousand francs as a contribution for the relief of the refugees, and that it had made a singular impression. Taking up one of the photographs which showed a great number of these people camping in a mountain gorge, his Holiness said to me, "Are these people all Christians?" He was probably prompted to ask because the few men among the crowd of women and children were wearing the fez, which is universally worn by the Macedonian men. I answered, "Yes, father."

Monsignor Murphy interjected: "They are Christians, Holy Father—but schismatics." The Pope replied to him, "But they are all our brothers!" And, turning to me with that deep, searching look of his, he repeated it—"They are all our brothers."

I told him what efforts some newspapers had made on behalf of these unfortunate Macedonians. "Good work," he said; "that is good work for the free press of a great country." Emboldened perhaps not a little by his outspoken and simple cordiality, so that I had quite lost the feeling that I was talking to a pontiff, and felt more as if I were conversing with a plain parish priest, whose heart was glowing with love for his parishioners, and whose deepest desire was to help and serve them, I said to him, "Would not you, Holy Father, use your influence with the powers on behalf of these people?" and I pointed out the proved insincerity of the Turks with regard to carrying out any sort of reforms, and the lack of earnestness among the Christian powers in insisting on their being enforced.

THE POPE AND THE MACEDONIANS.

"Perhaps I have done more, my son, than you know of," he replied. "I do not wish to interfere in politics unless I know it will be effectual—effectual for doing good." And he went on to tell me that only the other day, when it appeared as if there was a prospect of war and bloodshed in Colombia, he communicated with President Roosevelt and received a most courteous and cordial reply from him.

With regard to the Macedonians, only a few days ago he received a letter from the Sultan

himself; "*una littera stupenda*" was the Pope's expression, and then he went on to tell me that this extraordinary document was principally taken up with congratulating him on the efforts he had made in the cause of peace, from which it appeared to me that this wiliest of old diplomats was trying his hand at humbugging the Pope very much in the same way that he has often succeeded in humbugging others. It was delightfully evident, however, that the recipient of that "*littera stupenda*" was not being taken in.

A TOUR OF THE WORLD SUGGESTED.

While talking to him about the ease and rapidity of modern traveling, I asked him if now that it was so easy, and that all the other monarchs of the earth were going a-visiting, "Why would not you, father, make a tour of your parish—the world?" He sat back, and laughed a ringing, hearty laugh, as he shook his head. He seemed amused at the idea of a pope turning globe-trotter; but I persisted, and rapidly sketched the projected tour across Europe and England, and dwelt, perhaps not unenthusiastically, on the reception he would get everywhere in Ireland, and when traversing the United States especially, and so on round back to Rome, which would make it the greatest royal progress the world had ever seen. He looked at me with an amused yet interested smile. It may have been imagination, but I thought there was a gleam in his eye as if deep down there was something that appealed to him in the idea of seeing something of these three hundred millions of people that recognize him as their spiritual father, and visiting those far-off countries that he had never seen, although almost daily hearing from them. Could it be that the vigorous manhood of him was already chafing under the confinement of the Vatican?

Only a few months ago, it was his practice at Venice to rise every morning at 5 o'clock, and after saying mass and starting the work of the day, he went regularly at 8 o'clock for a swim in the Adriatic. Only the week before he took his return ticket for Rome to attend the Conclave, he climbed a mountain five thousand feet high. Now never, never more such a swim or climb! The high walls of the Vatican gardens

must feel to him like those of a prison, the triple tiara like a thorny crown.

AN IMPRESSIVE FAREWELL.

When he had finished looking at the book, he said he must give me a medal in return. With that he got up and opened a door in the wall beside him and disappeared for a few moments, to return with a white plush case in his hand containing his gift. He then asked Monsignor Murphy, in Italian, if I was a Catholic. It struck me as very charming that by that time he had spent about half an hour talking so freely on such a variety of topics to one who, for aught he appeared to know, might have had it as part of his belief that he was the incarnation of Antichrist or the Scarlet Woman. It appeared to make no difference to him.

Pointing to the fountain pen in my hand, he said, "That is the greatest weapon ever put into the hand of man; see that you always use it fearlessly and for the truth, and as you have been using it lately in the cause of those who suffer, and the cry of whose suffering is unheard."

I knelt and kissed his hand, and as we passed out backward the figure of that white-robed man, with the rugged, kindly face, and tuft of shaggy hair and the wonderful eyes, standing there in that plain room, sank into my mind. Outside, the Noble Guards bowed to monsignor as we passed. The two rooms were lined with waiting visitors—nuns, an old officer, his breast ablaze with many decorations, an Eastern priest, a Japanese, and a host of others—awaiting until he would come out and say a few words to them in general audience. As we passed out through the Swiss Guards, and along the beautiful geographical gallery into the courtyard, and down across the Piazza St. Pietro, the words, and the tone in which they were said, kept ringing in my ears, "They are all our brothers," said by that simple, white-clad priest, standing erect, whose great heart seemed to fill the room with an atmosphere of charity and of love. Not as a politician, not as a diplomat, will, I think, he be remembered, but as the people's Pope—true successor of the fisherman—ruling by love over a kingdom that is not of this world.

G. LYNCH.



THE NEW PAPAL SECRETARY OF STATE.

THE London society, whatever may be its name, which affixes to houses the interesting tablets telling us who have lived or died there, should keep its eye on No. 33 Gloucester Place, Portman Square, for as lately as October 10, 1865, was born there his Eminence Cardinal Rafael Merry del Val, the one and only secretary of state of Pius X., sovereign of four hundred million willing subjects, embracing every nationality, color, and tongue.

HIS ENGLISH SCHOOLING.

The accident of his birth in London is not the only connection which the cardinal has with the United Kingdom. His father, then secretary at the Spanish embassy, is descended from an Irish family who emigrated to Spain at the end of the seventeenth century; hence the name "Merry."

On his mother's side also he is connected with Britain. His grandmother was Miss Sophia Willcox, eldest daughter of the late Brodie M'Ghie Willcox, member of Parliament for Southampton. His first schooling he received at Baylis House, near Slough, an excellent school kept by the well-known Butt family. When he was ten years old, the scene of his education shifted to Namur and Brussels, his father having meanwhile become Spanish ambassador to Belgium. He returned, however, to complete his education in England, spending two years in philosophy at Ushaw College, Durham, where he remained until October, 1885. He seems at no point of his school career to have earned a reputation for brilliancy,—well-conducted and industrious was the most that was said of him.

In amusements, he developed into a good cyclist and a really excellent shot. He was fond of riding, and had a pretty taste for dancing,—so much so that when, at the age of twenty, he told his parents of his desire to adopt a religious life, his mother had to warn him, with mock gravity, that his dancing days were over.

A PROTÉGÉ OF LEO.

His desire was to enter the Jesuit order, with the ambition of being sent to one of their missions in East London, but his father having presented him to his Holiness Pope Leo XIII., the venerable Pontiff, a great judge of men, at once insisted upon his father sending him to the Accademia dei Nobile Ecclesiastici. Here he acquitted himself with credit, and obtained a degree in philosophy, theology, and canon law.

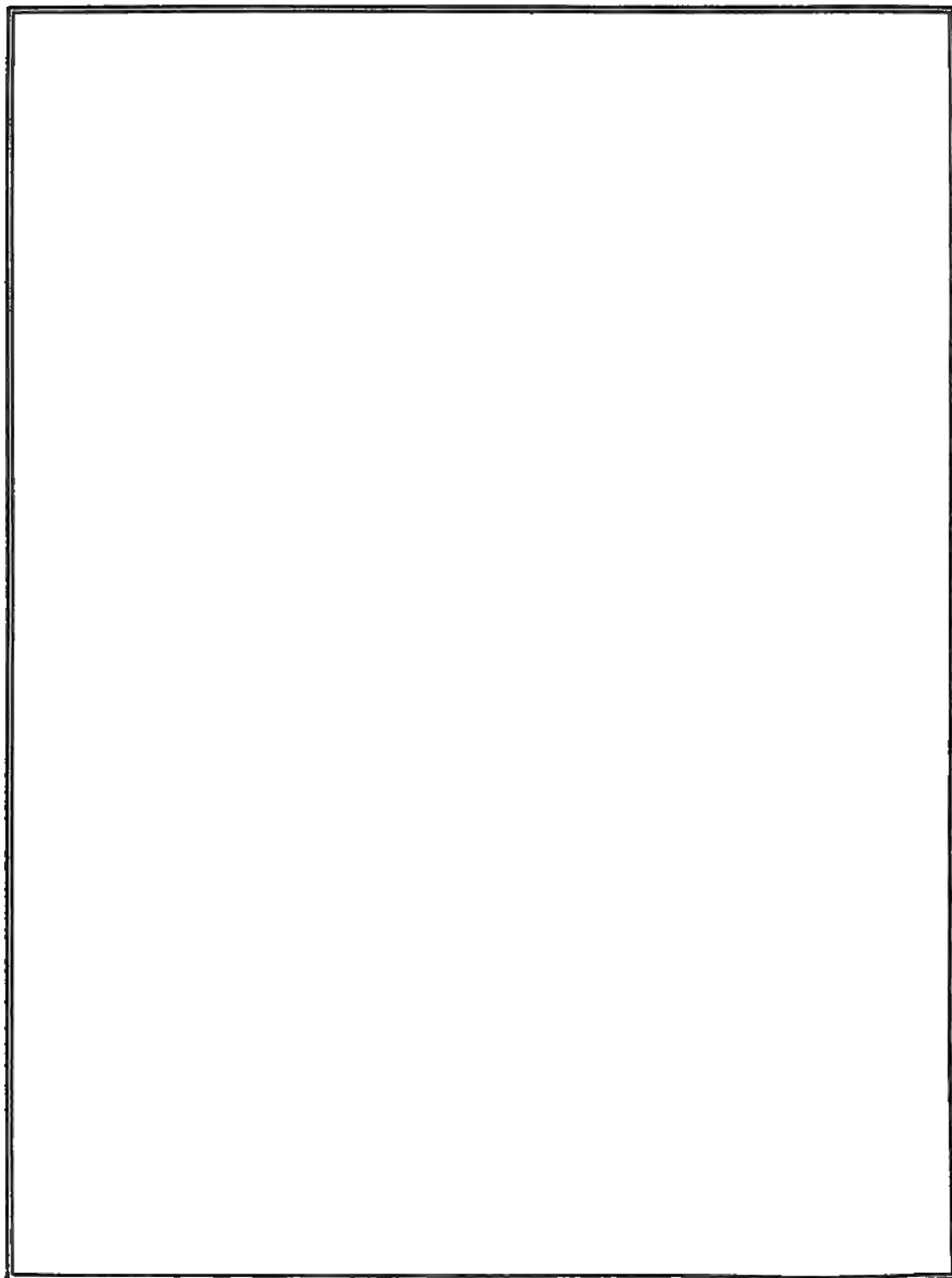
His entrance into the Accademia was no doubt intended as a compliment to his distinguished father, who has in succession been ambassador to Belgium, Austria, and the Holy See for the court of Spain; but his subsequent rapid promotions are no doubt due to Leo XIII. The aged Pontiff recognized the talents possessed by Merry del Val, who from this time seems to have impressed every one with whom he came in contact as a young man of singular promise.

His promotion was rapid. He was first of all appointed one of the Camerieri Segreti, and as such he accompanied Mgr. Ruffo Scilla, in 1887, to represent the Holy See at the Jubilee of Queen Victoria. A few months later, with Monsignor Galimberti, he attended the funeral of Emperor William I. In 1888, he represented the Holy See on the occasion of the Jubilee of the Emperor Francis Joseph, and on three occasions was appointed by the Queen-Regent of Spain as religious instructor to her daughters, and he prepared the present King for his confirmation. These appointments, like his visit to London as representative at the coronation of Edward VII., were no doubt more honorable than responsible, but as time went on the confidence shown in him by Leo XIII. increased.

In 1892, he was appointed Camerieri Segreto Partecipante, which entailed his taking up his residence within the Vatican itself, with an apartment in close proximity to that of the Holy Father, a member of whose family he thus became. A few years later, he was appointed to the responsible and onerous position of secretary to the special commission appointed to examine into and determine the validity of Anglican orders. This may be called his first responsible appointment. The commissioners were unanimous in their appreciation of the able manner in which he discharged his duties. His minutes, drawing together and digesting, as they did, the daily discussions of the commission, were regarded as extraordinary in their faithfulness and lucidity.

ENVOY TO CANADA.

In 1897, when Canada was ablaze from end to end over the burning question of the Manitoba schools, Merry del Val was selected by Pope Leo XII. to visit and study the question on the spot and report to the Holy See on the matter. His visit to Canada was a noteworthy success, and marked an epoch in its religious history. It was only to be expected that he would be



HIS EMINENCE CARDINAL MERRY DEL VAL.

well received in the Catholic province of Quebec, but the singular personal enthusiasm which he kindled everywhere turned his visit into a triumph. To the English-speaking population, he appeared the cultured Englishman, while the French found that he spoke their language quite as perfectly as themselves; and at the Laval University and the great seminaries he somewhat astonished his audiences, on orations in Latin being addressed to him, by at once replying, with the utmost fluency, in the same tongue. His reception in the Protestant provinces was scarcely less cordial, his charm of manner and fine presence winning all hearts. At Ottawa, both parties vied with each other in showing him respect and consideration, and at Toronto the cabinet gave him a public reception which was attended by persons of all faiths and creeds.

In connection with his visit to Toronto, an amusing incident occurred. While journeying in the Catholic province of Quebec, he was, in accordance with custom, at liberty to wear the somewhat gorgeous dress of a monsignor. In Ontario, a Protestant province, the custom is different, and a Catholic clergyman, as in England, wears broadcloth and the plain Roman collar in the street. However, through an accident, his luggage containing the plain garments miscarried, and he realized that he must involuntarily break the law, and suggested that he should turn back. This was not to be heard of, and during his sojourn in Toronto he appeared in his monsignorial robes without exciting the least adverse criticism. In fact, his picturesque appearance seemed to be approved.

The task he had to perform was one of singular difficulty for any diplomat, and especially for one so young. He had to inquire into the conduct and actions of men—his elders in years and superiors in ecclesiastical status; and if the rumors that were current had foundation, some of them were not particularly anxious that his mission should succeed. However such opposition may have stung him, he neither showed resentment nor was in the least overawed by it. His power of self-effacement, his singleness of purpose, and his energy carried all obstacles, and his youth was soon forgotten and forgiven.

Many predicted the failure of his mission and the end of his career; some, perhaps, wished it. Even in Rome, men are but human. It was an absolute success. A *modus vivendi* was found between Church and State, and the internal peace of the Church was secured by the appointment of a permanent apostolic delegate. Catholic priest or layman, instead of a tedious and expensive appeal to Rome, now receives justice at his door.

APPOINTMENT AS PAPAL SECRETARY.

The circumstances immediately leading to the appointment of Cardinal Merry del Val to the high office of secretary of state are so peculiar that some of the faithful trace in them the finger of Providence. The dying Pontiff nominated Monsignor Volpini to be consistorial secretary, but he died a few days before the Holy Father, and the knowledge of his death was kept from the Pontiff so as not to distress him. Had Monsignor Volpini lived, he would by right have been the secretary of the General Congregation of the Sacred College which met to elect the new Pope.

Monsignor Volpini's death necessitated the election of a new secretary, and the choice by the vote of the College of Cardinals, convened after the decease of the Pope, fell on Mgr. Merry del Val, who was thus brought into daily personal contact with his Holiness Pius X., to whom, on his election as Pope, Mgr. Merry del Val acted as temporary secretary of state pending a permanent appointment. One day, when Mgr. Merry del Val was leaving the Pope's room with a basketful of correspondence and papers which had just been dealt with, Pius X. called him back and handed him another letter, remarking casually, "Monsignor, this is also for you." Mgr. Merry del Val pushed it into his pile and passed to his own apartment, where he began to go through the various papers and letters. In due course he took up the last letter handed to him, and to his surprise—indeed, to his horror—found that this letter, written by the Pope's own hand, appointed him permanent secretary of state, informing him, further, that the capability he had shown for the delicate task, his devotion to his work and absolute self-negation in all that he had undertaken under the Pope's eye, had convinced his Holiness that he need look no further for a competent secretary of state. The shock was so great that it caused him almost to lose consciousness, and a friend who was in the room ran to his assistance, snatching the letter which had so affected him from his hand,—and thus its contents became known.

Of Merry del Val's suitability for the post, there can be no doubt. The son of a distinguished diplomatist, he has spent the last twenty years in the greatest school of diplomacy in the world. Other sovereigns can back up their diplomacy by force, but the Pope has no second weapon. It is doubtful whether any modern diplomatist has ever started better equipped for his task. His wonderful gift of languages places him in a position of superiority over all his pred-

ecessors. Spanish is his mother tongue; English he speaks as an Englishman, French like a Frenchman, and he also has a fluent command of German. Italian he speaks without accent, and he has become so much to be regarded as one of themselves that there was no feeling of opposition from the Italians to his appointment to a post they had always regarded as belonging to an Italian. He is the first cardinal secretary of state who has been able to deal with Catholics of the Anglo-Saxon race in their own language, and this has been, perhaps, a large factor in his appointment. He is an indefatigable worker and a man of strong character. He has a temper kept well in control, which betrays itself sometimes by the appearance of an indignant flush on his face and by a flash from his dark eyes.

Those who know the cardinal best assert that he is a man of broad mind and deep human sympathies. On the other hand, there is no doubt that on one subject, at any rate,—viz., the Semitic question,—he is not entirely free from prejudices. That there will be any great change in the general policy of the Vatican is not likely; but Cardinal Merry del Val will greatly disappoint his admirers if he makes no attempt to bring its methods more up to date. He has already introduced shorthand writing and typewriters in the Vatican, and there are actually rumors of telephones, elevators, and electric light.

HIS WORK AMONG THE POOR.

There is one side of his life that is but little known, but upon which it is pleasant to dwell—and that is his private life as a priest in Rome. The position of Camerieri Segreto Partecipante is not unlike that occupied by the lords-in-waiting to the King. They are busily occupied with distinguished duties for a certain number of hours a day, but, on the other hand, they have ample leisure, which is entirely their own to dispose of. Nobody would think of blaming a young ecclesiastic who, when the duties of the day were finished, should consume that leisure either in visiting his friends or in private study or legitimate recreation; but Mgr. Merry del Val has found other and greater uses for it. His

duty finished in the Pope's apartment, he may often be seen racing with youthful vigor along the frescoed loggias and up the marble staircases of the Vatican, his purple robes flying behind him, until he reaches his own little private apartment, situated high up near the roof, with an outlook on to the top of the porch of St. Peter's. A hasty and ascetic meal consumed, the purple robes are thrown aside for the plain black soutane, and in less than half an hour from leaving the Pope's apartment Merry del Val is hastening along the streets across the Tiber to the Trastevere, where the great work which he has organized among the poorest of the poor of Rome has its headquarters in the poor boys' school and club. This club, developed by him for years with unflinching energy, now contains hundreds of members, many of them saved from ruin by its influence. With these poor urchins and their families, Mgr. Cardinal Merry del Val is a hero and a saint. This is the kind of work to which, beyond others, he would wish to devote his whole life.

Time after time he has begged permission of his superiors to be allowed to leave the paths of diplomacy, along which he has been reluctantly driven, and take up the hard life of a working priest; but Leo XIII. felt that the Church had other work for him, and his petitions were refused.

It was not only in the Trastevere that he labored. He had his confessional at San Silvestro, and later at San Georgio, and late into the night numberless penitents, many of them the poorest of the poor, might be seen waiting their turn at his confessional, seeking for his consolation and direction. It was characteristic that on November 9 last, when he was created a cardinal, he substituted for the feast which new cardinals usually offer their friends and relations a banquet for his poor penitents and boys in the Trastevere. Sorrow was mingled with the joy of the occasion, for the banquet was a final parting from his poor friends. The arduous duties of his new post will leave, alas, no leisure for Cardinal Merry del Val to pursue further this side of his priestly calling which he loves so well.

C. R.



THE LATEST MILITARY SENSATION IN GERMANY.

ON January 26, a Saxon lieutenant in the German army killed a brother officer who had betrayed his family honor. In Dresden, on the same day, an officer who had eloped with the wife of the novelist, Georg von Ompteda, and fought a duel with the injured husband, was sentenced to six months' imprisonment. During the same week, a lieutenant fought nine other officers of his regiment in succession, because he claimed they had outraged his family honor. At the same time, the army sustained a real loss in the voluntary retirement of Gen. Kolmar von der Goltz, famous as Von der Goltz Pasha, drillmaster of the Turkish army in the recent war with Greece. This able writer of military books made application for retirement as soon as he heard of the Kaiser's observation that "his imperial majesty does not wish his officers to play with pen and ink."

During these seven days, also, there appeared, as though to confirm and make more impressive

this news, an English translation of Lieutenant Bilse's famous book, "A Little Garrison" (Stokes), a work which has caused an international sensation and come near to upsetting the German army. The story, told in the form of a realistic novel, has gone home to the soul of the German people. In a country where a novel which sells ten thousand copies is regarded as a success, this book went into its one-hundred-and-tenth thousand a couple of weeks after its publication. The author has been tried for writing over an assumed name and without the permission of the military authorities. He has been dismissed from the service and sentenced to six months' imprisonment. The book has been a theme of heated debates in the Reichstag, and the Kaiser himself has been forced to take notice of it.

This little book, with the unpretentious title and of but trifling literary merit, may be indirectly the means of the moral reformation of the entire German army. It is intensely realistic, and the truth of its terrible revelations has been reluctantly admitted by a number of the representative men and journals of the empire. "A Little Garrison" is a terrible arraignment of the entire German army system. It is a graphic picture of military conditions as they exist in many German garrison towns; and the pitiful recital of corruption, lax discipline, low moral tone, favoritism, and loose living was not shaken or weakened in a single instance by the testimony at the trial.

The novel is the chronicle of an unsavory "mix-up" of army officers and their wives, whose relations are so promiscuous that it is almost impossible at times to untangle them. Second-rate and low-born officers are condemned for ten years at a stretch to some petty frontier post because their superiors are anxious to forget them. Here they get into mischief of all kinds, alienate the affections of one another's wives, idle away their time,—with a corresponding effect upon discipline,—get drunk, brutally ill-treat their subordinates, make life miserable for the townspeople, get heavily into debt, and curse their lot,—all these within sight of the frontier of a foreign and possibly hostile nation. One of the lieutenants, who has a kind heart, and who is a victim of brutal, drunken officers and their designing, intriguing wives, is made to say:

Every officer guilty of follies is assigned to a frontier garrison. Those who give such orders do not know that

dubious characters, brought together in one spot, do far more evil than if they were distributed among the regiments and forced to live among numbers of comrades of irreproachable character. Nearly all the scandals that break out in our corps are enacted in these frontier holes. . . . There is no help for it. We can have no relations with the residents, because there are none, or practically none. For want of the distractions so numerous in the large cities, we are obliged to pass most of our time in our clubs. We have not even permission to drink our beer in a little wayside inn, on account of the class of persons to be found there. Well, we stay in the club, and for the mere sake of passing the time, we drink and drink. The consequence is the series of scandals that are known only too well.

All the hopes of military advancement turn out to be illusions. "The private soldier in the German army is a man forced into a yoke, the prey of every whim of his superiors, a man exposed to the bad humor of those above him,—one, who has to suffer, without a sign of resistance, undeserved harshness and injustice."

When one of the ladies is discovered in a nasty intrigue with one of the lieutenants, her husband is forced by the "Council of Honor" to fight a duel to save the "honor" of his wife by mortal combat. "Because his miserable wife has deceived him, the army forces him to expose himself to the bullet of her seducer, instead of simply expelling the latter from the army and giving him a much-needed period of reflection in jail."

Life at this garrison makes bores of men.

For nine years, I have been vegetating in this miserable hole. . . . I have lost the manners of good society. . . . The tone prevalent in these casinos of ours is enough to demoralize almost anybody. . . . This continual gossip, these ceaseless bickerings, are enough to destroy the temper and, to some extent, the reputation of an angel. . . . For the most part, officers sent to these frontier garrisons are relegated there to get rid of them. His majesty does not consider the fact that to place such doubtful elements in such large numbers into this sort of a garrison renders them even more harmful than if they were sent to larger garrisons, where they would be subjected to the influence of respectable and well-bred comrades. . . . By rights, the transfer of a regiment to a frontier ought to be a distinction, because there they are closest to the enemy. . . . But this is a mere illusion.

The most amiable of the characters in the book, the hearty, honest Sergeant Schmitz, who is assaulted by a superior officer and driven from the service, afterward becomes a socialist. The army, he says, in one of his harangues, is anything but a blessing to the people.

It takes away his children; it uses up the best years in his life. . . . During these years, our sons are treated with injustice and brutality, and retire from the army

into workaday life as the bitter enemies of the government, which dismisses many of them as helpless cripples or as physical wrecks, without ever thinking of making a suitable reward.

The German press unwillingly but fully admits the truth of the arraignment. The *Hamburger Nachrichten* "regrets admitting that the picture is not overdrawn." The *Berlin Tageblatt* declares that the book "should be most seriously pondered in high places." The *Vossische Zeitung* declares that public confidence must be restored in the army. The *Berlin Post* points out the fact that the town in which the scene is laid, Forbach, is in Alsace, and near the French border, and hardly thinks that the German press can gracefully point the finger of scorn at France for the Dreyfus revelations. The London *Spectator* believes that the incident is "a symptom of such far-reaching demoralization that the very efficiency of the German army as a whole may be brought into question." The minister of war, General von Einem, admitted in the Reichstag that the book stated facts, and he did not repudiate the statement that the conditions described by the author—or worse ones—existed in many other garrisons. The Kaiser has had a report made to him on the conditions described in the book, and has been so much impressed by the actual state of affairs revealed that he has issued a decree to the commanders of twenty-three army corps "threatening with expulsion from the army any officer who should hereafter be guilty of such heinous behavior as is exemplified by the characters in Bilse's book."

In his introduction, Wolf von Schierbrand (the translator) bears testimony to the correctness and the truth of the statements made, but cannot exonerate the Kaiser from blame, as that monarch's example, in the matter of "indulgence in sybarite banquets, his ideas about dueling, and his insistence upon higher living by the officers than their pay justifies, must be held largely to blame."

In 1786, Frederick the Great died, leaving an army that he had raised to the very pinnacle of fame.

With this army he had faced and vanquished, standing at bay against almost the whole of Continental Europe, his powerful foes. . . . Just one score of years later, the hills of Jena looked down upon the crushing, disgraceful defeat of this same Prussian army. . . . The heel of the Corsican despot was on its neck. . . . Sadowa and Sedan reinstated Prussia, and with her the allied states of Germany, in her former glory. . . . Undermined by corruption, . . . honeycombed with loose morals, favoritism, and boundless conceit, . . . is another Jena coming?

HERMANN VON HOLST, THE HISTORIAN.

BY LUCIE HAMMOND.

THE death of Dr. Hermann von Holst, coming so soon after the passing of Theodor Mommsen, removes from the ranks of living historians another significant figure,—a man who, though German by birth, made the field of American history peculiarly his own.

Born in 1841, in Livonia, Russia, Dr. von Holst was early left to obtain an education as best he might. By tutoring, he earned enough money to enable him to study three years at Dorpat, and for two years at Heidelberg, where he took his doctor's degree. For a time, he was tutor in a private family in St. Petersburg, and later in France. Here he wrote a pamphlet on

the significance of a revolutionist's attempt upon the life of the Czar, in 1866. This pamphlet made him an exile from the place of his birth.

In 1867, he took steerage passage for the United States. Knowing no one, without a friend, he lived in New York all winter, in one room with workingmen, all of them being so poor that they had no fire. The future author of the "Constitutional History of the United States" worked in bed in order to keep warm. He finally became assistant editor of Schem's "Deutsch-Amerikanisches Conversations Lexicon," and correspondent of the Cologne *Zeitung*. This kept him from starving, and the encouragement of the great von Sybel induced him to study for that monument of his labors, the "Constitutional History of the United States."

Dr. von Holst studied American political life at first hand as a Republican speaker in the campaign of 1868, and as an active worker in the overthrow of the Tweed ring.

And now fortune began to smile upon him, for, in 1872, he became assistant professor of American history and constitutional law at the University of Strassburg. Two years later, he was full professor at Freiburg. Although he was twice called by Johns Hopkins University, he did not come to America permanently until, in 1892, he accepted the head professorship of history at the University of Chicago. Here he remained until he went to Italy, three years ago, to regain his health. Twice before 1892 he had visited the United States, but in a very different manner from his first trip in 1867. The Russian Academy of Science sent him in 1878-79. In 1883, he was one of thirty German guests at the opening of the Northern Pacific Railroad. On these visits he lectured at Harvard, Cornell, and Johns Hopkins universities, and in several cities.

The writings by which Dr. von Holst is best known are his constitutional history, a life of Calhoun in the "American Statesman Series," and twelve lectures on the French Revolution, delivered at the Lowell Institute.

Perhaps no teacher was ever more thoroughly loved by his students. To those seeking a higher degree, he was always a suggestive and a helpful critic, and to the simplest question of the undergraduate he lent the kindest and closest attention. The classes delighted to show their deep-seated devotion in unobtrusive ways. One spring, a carriage was sent by his class to bring him from his home to Cobb Hall, at the University of Chicago, where the lectures were given. Sometimes, when he was ill, flowers were sent.

As a lecturer he was unsurpassed. His harsh and penetrating voice rang through the corridors, drawing to the closed door of the classroom an eager throng of students, who would stand for the hour drinking in the stolen words with avidity. Inside the room every available space was taken, and every student waited with open notebook. On the tick of the quarter past the hour, the professor would enter. Could it be possible that so many men and women were waiting for that small, bent man, who almost tottered to his chair? As he sank into his seat, one noticed that his eyes were sunken and his cheeks hollow, his hand trembled and his breath was labored. He began to speak in a low, hesitating tone—he was giving a short, concise *résumé* of the lecture of the day before. Then the manuscript of the day's lecture was taken up. Suddenly an electric shock seemed to pass through the man. The dull eyes blazed, the hollow cheeks became brilliantly red, the voice rose to a commanding pitch, the words rushed out in a steady stream, the weak form started from the chair. The man was lost in his subject; the veritable soul of history was crying out. Before the lecture was over, the students had dropped their pens and had broken into uncontrollable applause. In his office, five minutes after, the doctor would sit utterly exhausted. More than one of his students would anxiously watch him creep down the stairs on his way home.

Dr. von Holst's phrases were often strikingly apropos. In speaking of the return of Napoleon from Elba, he remarked that this act gave Metternich political St. Vitus' dance. His designation of the administration of Jackson as "the

reign of Andrew Jackson" is known wherever American history is read. It sometimes happened that the "how"—as he expressed it—of idiomatic English was sacrificed to the "what" of his meaning, yet his sentences had the vigor of sustained periods. They were strengthened by figures of speech and striking images; and they were as clear as day, in spite of a decided Germanic tendency to length and involved clauses.

His lectures were always prepared with care, and he spent many hours in verifying references to lectures first written some years before. It has been said that he forbade the publication of his lectures because he could not correct and polish them for printing. For the form of his published lectures on the French Revolution he apologizes.

One day, in replying to some question, the doctor, passing his hand over his dome-like forehead, prefaced his answer by, "As I think over the history of the world, as I have it in my head,"—a remark which his amused hearers were aware was no boasting, but rather the somewhat naïve statement of a fact. He spoke several languages and read more, and his knowledge of sources and of secondary historical material seemed exhaustless. Undoubtedly, the secret lay in a capacity for work, immense in spite of frail health, and in a marvelously retentive memory.

That moral courage in speaking his opinion, which, thirty years before, had exiled him from the land of his nativity, forced him to take an open stand against the popular cause in the Spanish-American War. Dr. von Holst was an American citizen; his sympathies with liberty and with the struggles for liberty were always apparent in his lectures; and, in explaining his reasons for becoming German-American, he said he felt that a republic was the best form of government in which to work out the problems of national life. "A democratic republic," he said, "is based upon discussion. Discussion means reason. If this basis is knocked away, we have an iron Colossus with brittle feet of clay."

Carl Marr's portrait, recently unveiled in the University of Chicago by the appreciative governing bodies, is the portrait of one of the kindest critics and truest sons among the adopted children of America, of one of the sincerest searchers in the realms of historical knowledge.



SAN CARLOS, THE USUAL SCENE OF THE DECISIVE BATTLES IN THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC.

(In the background is the capital, Santo Domingo City. The ruins in the foreground are the result of an encounter fought there last spring.)

SANTO DOMINGO: A TURBULENT REPUBLIC.

BY CHARLES S. SALOMON.

THERE is probably no country of its size which commands greater newspaper attention or is more often afflicted with revolutionary outbreaks than Santo Domingo, the little West Indian republic adjacent to Haiti. In fact, it is seldom that the Dominican republic, except when in the turmoil of an insurrection such as is now in progress, is heard of at all. When quiet reigns, nothing happens that is worth being chronicled. The country is best known for two reasons,—because the remains of Columbus were buried there, and on account of its almost continual state of political ferment.

Americans have searched for the causes of these frequent armed outbreaks against the ever-changing government. They have been principally attributed either to the temperament of the people or to the climate. But while the former is true, the latter is a confounding of cause and effect. The perpetual summer of the tropics has rather the effect of making one languid and lazy than of breeding strenuosity. However, it is the absence of cold weather that makes it possible for the insurrectionists to fight season in and season out, sleep in the open, and subsist, if necessary (as it often is), on the

fruit which grows in great variety and abundance in their country.

In the Dominican republic, revolutions take the place of elections. Not that the people are too impetuous to permit a president to complete his tenure of four years. Nor is it because the conditions have ever been improved as the result of a victorious campaign by some ultra-“patriotic” leader, actuated, ostensibly, by a sense of duty to his country. Far from it. I have watched for ten years with political disinterestedness every step made in the politics of Santo Domingo, and if asked for a brief summing up of the reasons for the many uprisings that have taken place there in that period, I could put it accurately in these two words, “political ambition.” Of course, some supposed misconduct on the part of the government is made the pretext for fighting; but that is done to mislead the poor, uneducated native, who blindly follows the standard of the ambitious politician who has promulgated and spread over the country a *manifesto* setting forth the faults of the president whom he wishes to depose and incidentally succeed in office.

For a country that lies so close to our doors, comparatively little is known in the United

A PEASANT'S HOME IN SANTO DOMINGO.

States about Santo Domingo, yet it is one of the richest republics, in natural wealth and fertile soil, in the West Indies. This lack of knowledge has often been responsible for the mistake of confounding Santo Domingo with Haiti. They are two as distinctly different countries as the United States and Canada. Even more so, for while in Haiti the native language is French, in Santo Domingo it is Spanish.

The Dominican republic has also been frequently referred to as an island. It is not. Santo Domingo is in the eastern portion of the island of Haiti, which comprises Santo Domingo and Haiti. The latter occupies the western portion of this island. The two republics are divided by a sparsely populated frontier. In many respects, the two peoples are not at all dissimilar. Both the Haitien and the Dominican belong to the Roman Catholic faith.

Both countries are known as negro republics. The negro dominates politically, although socially there exists a distinct dividing line. Of Haiti's one million population, about 70 per cent. is black, while 30 per cent. is white or mulatto, with the latter in the majority. Santo Domingo's black element constitutes about 40 per cent. of

its six hundred thousand inhabitants, with 30 per cent. white, and a like percentage of mulattoes.

For many years, Haiti was the Mecca of rebellion. This was during the comparatively peaceful fourteen years which Santo Domingo enjoyed under the government of President Heurcaux. The situation has now changed, and Haiti is the quieter of the two. Haiti has, on account of her more orderly condition, made some progress in recent years, while Santo Domingo has steadily retrograded. Here, then, is a good example of the great harm wrought by the instability of Dominican politics. Both countries are equally well endowed by nature with a magnificent climate, great mineral wealth, and a fertile soil; their industries are similar,—coffee, sugar, and fruit growing; they are geographically almost one country, and yet Haiti outstrips her neighbor and rival, Santo Domingo, in commercial competition, which condition is directly traceable to the difference in the political atmosphere.

For the fourteen years previous to 1898, while the late General Heurcaux was president of the Dominican republic, it prospered to a considerable degree. His rule was not satisfactory, but

it was firm. In his régime, it is estimated that not less than two thousand men were executed by the president's order for conspiracy, actual or suspected. Thus he suppressed all opposition. His government was probably the most corrupt in the history of the republic, but his treatment of those who would disturb the peace had its stimulating effect on the commercial status of Santo Domingo.

Haiti and Santo Domingo are not on friendly terms, although their official relations are less strained than formerly was the case. It was in former years the practice of the Dominican rebels to organize on the frontier in Haiti and then invade their own country, sometimes with the aid of the Haitien army. The same was true of the rebels of Haiti and the Dominican army, and it is with a view to ending these invasions that the neighbors now "tolerate" each other.

In the five and a half years that have elapsed since the assassination of President Heuraux, Santo Domingo has had five presidents, four of whom obtained their places by means of rebellion. The constitutional tenure of the office is four years. Gen. Carlos F. Morales, who has been the republic's chief executive for about three months, gained his post by a resort to arms, having deposed President Alejandro Woz y Gil after a brief engagement. And now, almost before President Morales has had time to organize his provisional government, he is compelled to defend his authority against another rebellion, which is led by Gen. Juan Isidro

Jimenez. There is no great issue involved in this attempt to wrest the presidential power from General Morales. Neither is there any important political principle at stake in the destructive and life-sacrificing combat that is going on. It

GEN. CARLOS F. MORALES.

(President of the provisional government of Santo Domingo.)

is only the desperate effort of a man to satiate his taste for power—to satisfy his political aspirations.

Unlike most countries, there are no party lines in Santo Domingo. The political happenings are indeed kaleidoscopic. The government adherent of to-day is the revolutionist of to-morrow. Jimenez and Morales fought together for the overthrow of Woz y Gil. Jimenez believed that when their fighting should be rewarded with victory he would be again chosen president. But General Morales, who led the victorious rebel army into Santo Domingo City on the surrender of the Gil government, dissipated these hopes, and declared himself chief magistrate of the republic. Whereupon General Jimenez began his revolt against his former ally.

The terrible consequences of these uprisings are not generally known, which accounts for

GEN. JUAN ISIDRO JIMENEZ.

their being characterized as "bloodless revolutions." This view is erroneous. The loss of life from these disorders has been appalling. No accurate estimate can be made of the thousands of misguided individuals who have sacrificed their lives in these internecine and barbarous struggles. Their effect on commerce, too, is far-reaching. The destruction of property is tremendous. Commerce is tied up, and the people are in absolute misery.

Because of the frequent changes in the personnel of the army, Santo Domingo has no trained soldiers. The army is undisciplined, poorly clad, mostly barefooted, and ill-fed. These volunteers are, however, desperate fighters. The Jimenez revolutionists number about two thousand men, and the government has perhaps a like number. The former made some progress in the early stages of the rebellion, and captured several ports, which were retaken by the Morales army, with the help of the two government gunboats,

Presidente and *Independencia*. Since then, the rebel cause has lost ground.

With all this apparent absence of thorough civilization, it is nevertheless a noteworthy fact that the Dominican is honest, which, judging from his lack of political integrity, is due more to religious superstition than to principle.

The better element,—those who have commercial interests at stake, and those who take no part in politics,—have endeavored for many years to find a solution of the problem of how to end the anarchy that prevails. They would prefer the establishment of a protectorate by the United States over Santo Domingo to the present conditions. This, they are certain, would guarantee order in the republic. Besides, it would prove of great benefit to the American interests, which are large, and which, along with the other foreign interests, have suffered great damage from the present unstable state of Dominican politics.

A CENTURY OF INDEPENDENCE IN HAITI.

BY FRANCIS TREVELYAN MILLER AND JUSTIN L'HÉRISSE.

ONE of the most significant events of recent history in the western hemisphere was the celebration, on January 1 last, of the one-hundredth anniversary of independence in the republic of Haiti. While we are perplexed by the serious aspect of our negro problem, this little republic, where the white man is not even allowed to own property, is a most interesting study. Its history is replete with tragedy, and that it might be presented to the American people, I have collaborated with Justin L'Hérissse, "*avocat, et directeur du Soir*."

It is through this friend of the Haitien president that the accompanying illustrations are obtained, and, translating from the French, I herewith give his *résumé* of one hundred years of the first negro republic in the world.

"A century of freedom to-day is our heritage. It is a serious responsibility that rests upon us, and as we open our record of struggles to the whole world we realize the severe criticism and the spirited discussion that it will accentuate. We are but a people of liberty-lovers. At times, it seems as though we had attempted too much in self-government, but through the stress and storm of faithful endeavor and conscientious labor we hope to prove worthy of republican citizenship.

"It was on the 1st of January, 1804, that our native army, after heroic struggles, triumphed over the best soldiers of Napoleon I. A few weeks ago, a million and a half of French-speaking negroes paid patriotic homage to the memory of this struggle in the most elaborate celebration that ever took place on a tropical island.

"Haitien history and Haitien interests are closely related and interwoven with the progressive movements in America. We, too, honor the name of Christopher Columbus; for was it not our good fortune, as well as yours, that the 'visionary' navigator, while endeavoring to reach the Oriental Xipangu (Japan), blundered upon us both lying in the mysterious seas? Haiti, practically a part of America, was discovered by the Genoese adventurer on the sixth day of December, 1492.

"We, too, have had our Washington, and while François Dominique Toussaint L'Ouverture is honored with the title 'the first of the blacks,' Dessalines may be termed 'the father of his country.' Then there are such glorious names as Pétion, Christophe, Capois, and La Mort, the hero of Vettieres, before whose bravery General Rochambeau caused the flag of France to be lowered while the band played 'The Marseillaise.' There is Magny Lamareinière, who made the

famous retreat of the Crête à Pierrot, the most brilliant military event of the nineteenth century, according to the French general Lacroix."

From 1804 to this day, the little black republic counts nineteen rulers.

Dessalines (1804-06) reigned two years. He was formerly a slave. It was he who caused

his government, the country made great progress. He created the National High School, and distributed lands to the soldiers who had taken part in the war. He aided with money Simon Bolivar, who had come to Haiti, and who proclaimed the freedom of the states of Venezuela and Colombia; and to whom these states, in gratitude, have raised a statue.

Christophe ruled in the north of the island from 1806 to 1820. Although tyrannical, he civilized the country. He wished that all Haitians should have a calling or trade, so that the country should not be at the mercy of foreigners.

Pierre Boyer was at the head of the country from 1816 to 1843. He was the ruler who kept his power the longest. It was under him that San Domingo accepted the suzerainty of Haiti, and from which it separated in 1844. It was also under Boyer, in 1825, that Charles the Tenth of France recognized the independence of Haiti.

Rivière Hérard had only a short term of government, from 1843 to 1844. Guerrier was named president after Hérard. He remained at the head of affairs only one year, 1844 to 1845. Pierrot, who came after him, was in power only eleven months, 1845 to 1846. Riche, after a reign of eleven months, died while still in power, 1846 to 1847. Soulouque succeeded, from 1847 to 1859. After two years as president, he caused himself to be proclaimed emperor, in 1849, reigning eleven years. The empire was then overturned by Fabre Geffrard, who remained in power from 1859 to 1867. It was he who organized most of the schools in the country. It was under his government, in 1860, that the Concordat was signed between Haiti and the Papal court at Rome. Geffrard also put the Haitian army in good condition. Salnave passed his entire reign,

EX-PRESIDENT SAM, OF HAITI.

to be inserted in the constitution of the new state an article refusing all right of property to foreigners. Dessalines died by assassination at Port Rouge, in 1806.

Pétion governed from 1806 to 1816. It was he who really established the republic. Under

which lasted from 1867 to 1869, in making war. He died a tragic death, being shot. Nissage Saget governed the country from 1870 to 1874. It was under his government that the republic learned the blessings of a parliamentary régime. Michel Domingue, 1874 to 1876, distinguished himself in power only by his borrowing from

From his nomination to his fall, there was a disastrous civil war. Flowil Hyppolite, 1889 to 1896, finished the palace of the ministers, constructed the dock of Byoton and the iron market building of the Place Vallières, at Port-au-Prince, and the iron market building of Cape Haitien. He also built a bridge over the Grande Rivière du Cul de Sac, and another one upon Momance, a river of Liogane. The telephone and the telegraph, and many other inventions, were introduced under his government. Tiresias Sam, 1896 to 1902. There was no insurrection under his government. During the six years that he was at the head of the country, there was no improvement in the financial and economical state of the country. Numerous debts were contracted. It was under the government of General Sam, however, that the first railroads were

FLOWIL HYPPOLITE.

other countries. The most important transaction of his was the debt contracted at Paris in 1875, and on which the country is still paying the interest,—without having received any advantage from it. Bosirond-Canal, 1876 to 1879, governed the country under the severe control of the legislative body. Salomon, 1879 to 1888, was twice elected president. It was under his government that the National Bank, which has charge of the treasury service, was erected. It was he who constructed the national palace on the ruins of that of Salnave. He promoted public instruction,—organized the National High School and the National School for Girls, at Port-au-Prince, placing there professors brought over from France. French instructors were also secured for the army. It was under Salomon that the country was united by cable with the entire world. Légitime, 1888 to 1889, had no time to realize a single point in his programme

PRESIDENT PIERRE NORD ALEXIS, OF HAITI.

constructed, that of Cape la Grande Rivière and that from Port-au-Prince to the pond of Laumatie

The actual head of the republic of Haiti today is Gen. Nord Alexis. His first duty on taking the reins of government was to form a commission of administrative inquiry, in order to verify the financial accounts under General Sam. The results of this inquiry showed that with the connivance of the preceding government the National Bank of Haiti had compromised itself in scandalous operations. It is Gen. Nord Alexis, the veteran of the Haitian army, who has had the honor of presiding at the first centennial celebration of the republic.

ONE OF THE CAMPS ALONG THE CANAL ROUTE.

PANAMA AND ITS PEOPLE.

BY FRANCIS C. NICHOLAS, PH.D.

(Author of "Around the Caribbean and Across Panama.")

DURING the wanderings of a recent extended exploration in Spanish America, I had occasion to visit the Isthmus of Panama. My route took me from the lowlands of western Colombia, where, on approaching the Pacific, I found myself, in company with a crew of villainous guides, contending against the flood-tide of that great ocean, which came flowing and rolling in up the stream we were descending, turning its waters back on themselves,—a mighty force, rising as if naught could stay its onward progress, swelling on and up till all about us was an extended lake, where but a short time before had been only a stream flowing toward the ocean through a tropical forest. Such are the tides of the Pacific, excessive always, especially in the vicinity of the Isthmus.

With the falling tide, we made our way to Buenaventura, and from there I took a steamer for Panama. After two days, an unattractive

coast was sighted, a low line of dull gray barring the horizon, with nearer groups of brown, barren-looking islands looming up out of the green waters of the Pacific, their position increasing the effect of their prominence. Presently we were among the islands which make an outer barrier partially protecting the harbor of Panama, and a little beyond them our steamer came to anchor, to remain till the tide should rise and allow us to be taken to the city in barges. After a time, the ships in the harbor began to sway slightly, and then turned, in unison, almost, as the tide set in, rising rapidly toward the land. Then the barges came, and soon, packed with baggage, passengers, and freight, started for the city. We were landed at a well-appointed wharf, and were immediately beset by a crowd of porters contending for our baggage in bitter competition with one another, till finally all was adjusted and the passengers dispersed. I went to

the Grand Hotel, a place where many travelers have been sheltered, and around the walls of which more than one tragedy has been enacted. Going out almost immediately to see the city, I found a cosmopolitan place, with a sort of bravado, not animation, in the streets, where all sorts of people were gathered. There was the call of the gambler, the eager pushing of the money-changers, the solicitations of the curio-venders, offering cheap Birmingham imitations at fancy prices,—all combining to give an air of activity unusual in Spanish-American cities. The crowd was anxiously looking for business, but if any real work had been offered, it would not have been to their liking; the traveling public was easy, and a new steamer was in almost every day. Work! The natives had no need to work.

Panama has a substantial appearance under tiled roofs, and many of the houses and buildings are of brick and cement; the poorer houses are generally of adobe, carefully plastered, and the streets are fairly well paved. With evening came a dampness which collected even on the walls of the houses, and then evil odors filled the air. Decaying marine accumulations now exhaled on the night the nauseous something telling of sewage undisposed of, and the clinging odors of unclean streets, all combining with the smell of bad whiskey and raw rum, for every one was

drinking. This was Panama, the commerce of the world at its harbor, waiting to pass the barrier of the Isthmus, the merchants growing rich out of its benefits, the people of the streets living by preying on the liberality or credulity of travelers, and everybody out to take or make something from somebody else. Dissipation was unchecked, the former government sent from Bogotá encouraging it, for the business of supplying atrocious rum and other liquors was a government monopoly, and the more drunkenness, the more revenue. Gambling, too, was encouraged, for it paid tribute,—and what mattered the evil results, so long as money was sent to Bogotá? Yet the merchants and the better people of Panama bear an enviable reputation.

In a day or two, one can see, and know, everything at Panama, and I was not sorry to start for the eastern side of the Isthmus, where I was to make some land examinations. I found the railway well appointed, the hand of the American giving evidence of its capabilities. Order ruled,—a rare thing in Spanish America. From the train, we had glimpses of the Pacific and its embayments among promontories, swamps, and marshes which stretch away southward, continuing at intervals to the impenetrable swamps of the Darien region. Beware of seacoast lands south of Panama City. Such portions as are not under water at high tide are

A NATIVE GIRL ON THE CHAGRES RIVER.

scarcely habitable; and after exploring the lower portions of that country, I have a belief, or, more properly, the remembrance of a feeling, that there mosquitoes are more abundant than dry land.

Shortly after leaving Panama City, the railway turns to the Isthmian hills, where the land is better, but on the low divide it cannot be expected that the land will be entirely salubrious; though it is my opinion, after nearly twenty years of exploration in the American tropics, that any of these countries can be made healthful if it has good drainage and is not burdened with a pall of stagnant air hanging over it because of a barrier of lofty mountains checking the free circulation of the winds. In this respect, the uplands of Panama are fortunate; they are open to the sea, and many places are really delightful.

Crossing the Isthmus, one sees from the railway, clay hills and cemented gravel-deposits. Some of the hills are abrupt, though the general appearance is that of a rolling rather than a mountainous country. The foliage is disappointing, as the primeval growth of the tropics has been denuded and a recently grown jungle has appeared, a quarrelsome tangle of vegetation, the trees and plants contending with and stunting one another for room. These trees are beautiful in their superabundance, but lack the grandeur of the primeval tropical forests. Frequently there are extended fern brackens choking up former clearings and

encroaching everywhere against cultivation, giving an appearance of unkempt weediness. At the different stations, natives clustered around the train, eager to make something out of the travelers, or to get whatever might be had, and this gave an opportunity to see the people. Generally, they were well-appearing,—that is, the natives. West Indian negroes were there, and many ugly, surly individuals, their condition indicated by the scurvy gray shades which gather around the mouths and dull the faces of unhealthy, dissipated negroes.

There is much to interest the traveler while crossing the Isthmus, particularly the canal, a good view of which can be had from the train. Where the railway approaches the cuts for the canal, they look formidable, but from a little distance they are not so impressive, though, to an engineer, their extent is always appreciable. The whole breadth of the Isthmus has been cut into, and the outline of the canal can be clearly seen, looking like a great railway excavation. The difference, however, is easily apparent. Here there is no building up; everywhere there is cutting down. The canal has progressed to a great furrow dug in the earth, an impressive sight, the cut extending to the right and to the left as far as one can see. It has been a colossal work, and a cataclysmal failure. The blighting shadow of abandonment hangs over it all,—machinery uncared for, great dredges alone and silent, the once busy camps unoccupied and falling into

decay. The American traveler looks on and wonders at it, and then thinks of his own country and how soon all this will be changed.

Farther on, the Chagres River, an insignificant-looking stream, is pointed out to the traveler; and if the water is low, only one who knows the terrific rains and floods of the tropics can appreciate its threatening aspect. Then the train leaves the hill country, passes among swamps and jungles, and presently rolls in among the streets of Colon, a straggling city on a neck of beach, the swamps on one side, the waters of the harbor on the other. The railway occupies nearly all the water-front, and parallel to it is the only important street, where wooden houses give a rakish appearance, because of their bad construction. There are some good-looking shops, and numerous money-changers whose total equipment is a table, a show-case, and a gold-balance adjusted to weigh in the owner's favor. With this outfit, they do a large business, some, it is stated, changing as high as ten thousand dollars a month. One, a smart-looking boy, told me that he sometimes made as high as ten to twenty or more dollars a day.

Beyond the city to the eastward is the foreign quarter, where there is a well-built English church, a good hotel, and a number of comfortable residences, all open to and fronting on the sea. To the west of the town is the French quarter, beautifully laid out, the residences of the French officers being grouped together, where they held dissipated sway during the excitement and speculation attending their efforts to build the canal. Beyond these houses is the entrance to the canal, the Atlantic side excavated sufficiently for use, and it is stated that steamers have ascended for a considerable distance to collect cargoes of fruit. Here the canal does not look formidable, and the traveler's first impression is rather of disappointment; he has just entered from the broad harbor, and the canal looks little more than a large creek, or channel, such as are found at many places among the marshes along the Atlantic coast of our own country.

In a very short while one can see all of Colon, and, to pass the time, will loiter around the money-changers' shops. Formerly, one saw in their show-cases an interesting exhibit illustrating the peculiar relations of Panama to Colombia. From the capital, Bogotá, paper money was issued, but the people of Panama would have none of it, and silver was, and is, the principal circulating medium in that country. Paper money would not go in Panama, though penalty after penalty was authorized at Bogotá to be inflicted on all who refused to accept it. Panama

DE LEBSEP'S HOUSE, IN THE PARK AT COLON.

has always maintained her own postal relations with the outer world, and would not permit the use of Colombian postage stamps in her territory. Her custom-house was separate, and adjusted to the conditions best suited to Panama, not Colombia. Certainly, the Isthmus was semi-independent, though it submitted to a military government sent from Bogotá. This position has always been maintained in favor of Panama. The feeling which existed between her people and the people of Colombia is illustrated by an incident during my explorations. One intensely hot day, traveling on the Magdalena River, in Colombia, I met some important people,—that is, they thought themselves important,—on their way to the capital from the distant Department of Panama, where they had all been at work governing,—though some people intimated that their government had been robbery. The presence of an American among them was made the occasion of an animated discussion abusive of the aggressive "Republic of the North," against which the valiant sons of tropical America would unite in the defense of the sacred soil of their republics. I presently found that the United States had one friend in that company, a distinguished-looking man, who after a time spoke up decidedly, showing his fellow-travelers the error of their thoughts, and pointing out the many services of the United States to the Spanish-American republics. He was a Panamanian, a distinguished lawyer from David, on his way to Bogotá, a tedious, expensive journey, but necessary to the interests of his clients. He did not say directly, but he intimated to his military companions, that he and all his fellow-citizens would much prefer the government of the United States to that of Bogotá, a corrupt,

superstitious city hidden far away among the distant Andes.

After independence had been won from Spain, Venezuela, Colombia, Ecuador, and Panama were all united under a league of federation. Then Venezuela and Ecuador established independent governments, and the states of Colombia, with Panama, formed the United Sovereign States of New Granada, with their capital at Bogotá, the states exercising sovereign powers. Then came the gradual centralization of power at Bogotá, to which Panama did not always submit. The United States of Colombia were organized in 1861, confirming greater powers to Bogotá, and in 1886 the republic of Colombia was formed, after a bloody civil war. The former sovereign states then became departments, and their governors, appointed and removed at the pleasure of the executive, are little better than high police officials. Panama submitted, but her people would not obey, protesting always their rights as citizens of a constitutional state. The central government became more and more oppressive, till finally the avaricious politicians at Bogotá attempted to sever the fondest hopes and ambitions of Panama by their acts denying the ratification of a canal treaty with the United States. Then the people of Panama asserted

their independence, and became free to work out the destinies of their country. A fair country it is, too, not naturally so unhealthy as generally supposed. Under Bogotá's rule, sanitation at Colon and Panama was left principally to the buzzards. With better conditions, public health will improve; and, while the Isthmus is subject to the afflictions common to the tropics, it is not naturally so unhealthy as reported.

Probably in no other portion of America is there such diversity of conditions as we find at Panama. Geologically, many changes are represented. The central ridges are of crystalline, igneous formation, weathered on the surface to sticky clays, and flanked by accumulations of gravel and volcanic sediments. Beyond the gravel-deposits are alluvial plains, and then coastal swamps at many places, while at others the hills and mountains come directly down to the sea. The coastal swamps are of treacherous mud, generally impassable, and their only vegetation mangrove trees with roots standing above the mud and water. Farther in, the swamp becomes firmer, and ferns and plants abound. Then come the muddy coastal plain and tangled jungle, and after this the rolling country and grand primeval forest, where palms and rubber trees

flourish and giants of the forest are seen towering in the air. Then the mountains rise abruptly, steep rocky ledges and clay-covered slopes all mingled together, burdened with a vegetation at places scarcely penetrable. Here mountain streams have eroded to a great depth, and ridge succeeds ridge till the mountains begin to subside toward the Pacific, the better land, not very far removed from tide-water, affording favorable locations for cultivation and for grazing. At some places, the foothills are bathed by the Pacific; at others there is the usual coastal swamp, where mangrove trees growing on the mud-banks give the impression that firm land comes quite down to the sea.

Panama is not without development in the present or promise for the future, even away from the zone of great expectations along the canal. Minerals are in good evidence, gold, manganese, copper, and coal being found in promising deposits. The central mountain ranges are but little occupied, and among them are many beautiful and healthy locations. There is a flourishing commerce, and some of the places along the seacoast are of importance. Bocas del Toro and the Chiriqui Lagoon region enjoy an active fruit trade, and land is still offered on favorable terms, some of it government land, to be had for the taking. Probably the hill country back of the Chiriqui Lagoon will become one of the most favored agricultural regions in the tropics. From Chiriqui southward, the coast is not much occupied. Nearing Colon, cocoanut groves become prominent, and on southward, among the islands of the San Blas

coast, such groves become very abundant. In the interior of the San Blas country are lofty mysterious mountains, little known because the San Blas Indians are hostile. It is stated that among these mountains gold is abundant; and from their position in relation to other gold-bearing regions of Panama and Colombia, this is not improbable. Farther south, the limits of the republic of Panama are in the swamps of the Darien region.

Along the Pacific, the land is not greatly different from the Atlantic portions of the Isthmus, excepting that in the northern portions the hills come more frequently close to the sea, and at some places gravel bluffs and coral limestones are exposed to the action of the surf. Well off the coast below Panama City are the pearl fisheries, in the waters surrounding groups of islands, some of which are of considerable size, and whose climate is said to be delightful. Near the Costa Rica boundary on the Pacific side is the David region, a rich country, hospitable and eager for development, where Americans are sure of a hearty welcome.

On the swelling tides of the Pacific, one sees great steamers passing up and down the coast to the city of Panama, where commerce awaits, impatient at the barrier of less than fifty miles separating the mighty tides of the Pacific from the waters of the Caribbean, where the tide scarcely rises at all. The waters on either side of the Isthmus are as different as the waters of one side of the earth can be from the waters of the other side. Now the time is at hand when they are to be united.

LATIN-AMERICAN VIEWS OF PANAMA AND THE CANAL.

BY LOUIS E. VAN NORMAN.

THE great southern continent has been for almost a century vitally interested in the various projects to connect by a canal the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. But South America has comparatively few voices of public opinion, and it has been difficult to ascertain just what the consensus of opinion is among South Americans regarding the independence of Panama and the relations of the United States to the entire canal project.

The general tone of the South American press, in its comments, so far as can be ascertained, has

been surprisingly mild and reasonable. Much bitter opposition to what has been termed "the Yankee policy of aggrandizement" might have been expected, especially in view of what we have been hearing in the past few years about North American insolence and the impertinence of the Monroe Doctrine. The present occasion might have been expected to figure as a sort of climax to Latin-American dislike for the United States.

The animosity of Latin America for Uncle Sam, however, has been a good deal stronger in

the newspapers than in fact. The earliest comments on the independence of Panama and the canal treaty were very mild, but later there has appeared a spirit of animosity, aroused, no doubt, by the reports of opposition to the President in this country and the utterances of Senators and other public men on the "unjustifiable interference" of the United States. This later feeling has influenced most of the South American countries to refuse recognition to the new republic. Venezuela, Peru, Nicaragua, Guatemala, Costa Rica, and Cuba are the only Latin-American countries, so far, to extend such recognition. The canal will so plainly and largely benefit the entire southern continent that it is not surprising to find so few expressions of fear or dislike toward our government for the part it has played in bringing about the present situation.

A COLOMBIAN OPINION IN FAVOR OF PANAMA.

The press of Colombia itself even is by no means as bitter or unanimous in its opposition to the independence of Panama as one might be led to expect. Early in December last, one of the influential papers of Bogota, the *Relator*, contained a trenchant article arraigning the Colombian Government for its injustice and treachery to the Isthmus. This paper declared that the movement for independence in Panama was general and unanimous, and that there will be no reaction. It pointed out that Colombia has betrayed the confidence of the Isthmus by "its work of iniquity and spoliation."

We have converted the masters of that territory into pariahs from their native soil; we have cut off their rights and suppressed all their liberties; we have robbed them of the most precious faculty of a free people,—that of electing their judges and their legislators; we have restricted their rights of suffrage; falsified the count of votes; we have made prevail for the popular will a decision of a mercenary soldiery, and of a body of employees entirely foreign to the interests of the state; we have taken away from them the right of lawmaking, and as a compensation we have put them under an iron yoke of exceptional laws.

In towns of a cosmopolitan character on the Isthmus, we have founded no influential schools where children might learn our religion, our language, our history, and how to love their country. Before the whole world, we have punished with imprisonment, with expulsion, with fines and whippings, those who have written honest expressions of their thought. From December, 1884, to October, 1903, presidents, governors, secretaries, prefects, mayors, police, generals, officials, magistrates, state attorneys, and judges of all descriptions came from the high plains of the Andes . . . to impose on the Isthmus the will, the law, and the whims of the more powerful, to sell justice, or to speculate with the treasury. These employers, like the octopus with its manifold arms, were sucking the blood of an oppressed people, and were devouring what Panamanians only had a right to devour. We have made of the Isthmus

a real military province. When this nation of 350,000 souls had men of continental reputation like Justo Arosemana, legislators of the first order like Pablo Arosemana, and brilliant diplomats like Hurtado, and scientists of a European reputation like Soza,—these we put aside, relegating them in contempt and forgetfulness. . . . Such proceeding has wounded the pride, the dignity, and the patriotism of all the intellectual people of the Isthmus, and has provoked and developed the hatred and the anger of the popular masses.

WHAT PACIFIC SOUTH AMERICA THINKS.

The countries on the west coast of the continent, Ecuador, Peru, and Chile, are certain to benefit greatly by the canal. The most influential journals of Ecuador, such as the *Grito del Pueblo*, the *Nacion*, the *Telegrafo*, and the *Tiempo*, of Guayaquil, and the *Tiempo*, the *Derecho*, and others of Quito, however, are unanimous in condemning the conduct of the United States Government in this affair. The *Grito del Pueblo* accuses President Roosevelt of having "not only encouraged, but actually forced, the people of Panama to separate from Colombia." These journals know that the canal will benefit their country, but do not approve of the means employed, and urge "a union, or confederation, of all Latin-American republics to protect themselves against the spoliatory tendencies of the United States." The *Nacion*, of Guayaquil, which is the commercial capital of the country, however, is certain that the canal will be of incalculable benefit to South America. It says:

The independence of Panama is a fact of incalculable importance, not only for the Isthmians and the Colombians in general, but also for the whole of America. There are in the history of the nations and of humanity facts which impose themselves, and, as might be said, the realization of which is decreed by fate. Such is the independence of the Panama Isthmus, as the basis of the excavation of the canal, destined to put in communication the two grandest oceans of the globe. Nothing and nobody could successfully prevent it from succeeding. . . . The law of progress, which ended in conquering the resistance of those who were opposed to the building of the Suez Canal, will assert itself in this world of Columbus, and, despite all opposition, the Panama Canal will be constructed, as the logical result of the independence of the Isthmus.

Señor Don Manuel Alvarez Calderon, Peruvian minister to the United States, recently made a plea for the canal (which was afterward published in the "Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science"). The future development of Peru, the minister contended, depends on rapid transportation facilities and easy communication with the rest of the world. He is enthusiastic over the Panama Canal and the intercontinental railway. When the canal is built, he points out, Peru, instead of being

10,000 miles from New York and 16,000 miles from Europe, will be 3,000 miles from New York and 8,000 miles from Europe. When the Peruvian governmental scheme of a railroad extending over the Andes to the Amazon watershed is realized, the heart of South America, with its untold mineral and agricultural wealth, will then be within easy reach of the world. The *Comercia*, the daily newspaper of Lima, ridicules the Colombian appeal to the South American nations to take up arms against the people on the north. According to this journal, Peruvians "are certain that the United States is responsible for the success of the revolution in Panama." But, at the same time, "opinion generally favors the step taken by the people of the Isthmus,—so far, at least, as it tends to the completion of the canal."

Since the little trouble over the matter of the *Charleston* and the *Itata*, during President Harrison's administration, the relations of the United States with Chile have been amicable. Chile would also largely benefit by the canal; and the daily newspapers of that country admit the fact. The *Mercurio* (Santiago) declares that "the only thing to take into account is the canal itself, and that the canal will revolutionize commercial conditions. Let us look northward." The *Ley* (Santiago) is much alarmed, and declares that "if it be shown that the United States actually interfered in the Isthmus to bring on the revolution, we have here a portent of the utmost gravity to South America," and the *Imparcial* (Santiago) declares, "Let us be on guard everywhere, in order that the South American continent may be preserved for the South Americans." The *Porvenir* (Valparaiso) can see no evidence of interference by the United States. But the *Chilian Times*, the British paper published in Valparaiso, declares that the promptitude with which the new republic was recognized by the United States "lends color to the supposition that the separatist movement has been engineered by the great republic, with the object of facilitating the termination of the canal across the Isthmus. If this be the object of the movement, the change is to be welcomed, no matter how it has been brought about."

ARGENTINA, BRAZIL, AND VENEZUELA.

The press of the Argentine Republic is rather inclined to "call names." The influential *Liberal Prensa* (Buenos Ayres) quotes the saying current in the Latin-American countries for many years: "Wherever the canal is cut, there will be the southern boundary of the United States," and indorses the suggestion that Brazil, Chile, and Argentina act together in matters concerning the recognition of Panama, because

"the possibility of a foreign protectorate over a portion of Latin America is a very grave event." It continues:

The present revolution [in Panama] is different from the preceding ones, on account of the changes which have occurred in the attitude of the United States in regard to the Isthmus. Formerly, until a short time ago, the United States had no other interest there but the protection of its citizens and the safety of the railway traffic between Colon and Panama. But the situation has changed since the United States has resolved to continue and finish the great work inspired by De Lesseps, for the construction of a canal uniting the Atlantic with the Pacific. . . . It is natural that the government of Washington, which considers the canal as an indispensable factor for the political and commercial development of the United States, is more in sympathy with the separatists of the Isthmus than with the politicians of Bogota, who put all kinds of obstacles in the way of the projected work. The attitude of the United States is one of transcendental importance in that question.

While waiting to be convinced that the United States actually did aid the revolutionists, it declares that the event "has caused a feeling of alarm in the minds of those who fear the advance and the powerful influence of the north in Latin America."

The *Nacion* (Buenos Ayres) does not see any evidence of guilty complicity on the part of the United States, "although the attitude assumed by the republic of the north will powerfully influence the progress of events."

Brazil would also greatly benefit by the canal and the Amazon-Andes railroad projected by Peru. The *Correia* (Rio Janeiro) notes with approval that Chile and Argentina have joined Brazil in recognizing the new republic. The *Notizia* (Rio Janeiro) fears that the South American republics are too quarrelsome to act in concert on any one point, while the *Journal de Comercio* (Rio Janeiro) insists that it be understood that the republics of South America are "attached to the principle of their territorial integrity." The press of Bolivia and Paraguay has nothing to say. Some of the journals of Uruguay are rather outspoken. The *Nacional* and the *Prensa*, of Montevideo, both of which are violently opposed to the present administration in that country, declare that Colombia can expect no help from the other South American republics, because they are in no position to give any help. The *Dia*, of the same city, which is assumed to be the organ of the President of Uruguay, warns South Americans against arriving at any conclusion hastily.

The Venezuelan newspapers, generally, remember the aid received from the United States against Europe, and for the most part limit their comment to counseling Colombia to let

well enough alone, and to get what benefit she herself can out of the canal. The *Colaborador Andino* (Mérida) declares that the canal is an absolute national necessity. It advises Colombia to submit gracefully to the loss of Panama. The *Combate* (Caracas) believes in the integrity of the United States, and cannot forget the aid against Europe; but the *Pregonero* (Caracas) clamors for a South American alliance for mutual protection.

MEXICO AND CENTRAL AMERICA.

The Liberal press of Mexico blames the government of Colombia for what has happened in Panama. The *Imparcial*, of Mexico City, known as a semi-official newspaper; the *Patria*, of the same city; the *Libertad*, of Guadalajara City, and the *Correo de la Tarde*, of Mazatlan, Sinaloa, say that "the misgovernment of Colombia and the rejection of the Hay-Herran treaty were the causes of the intervention of the United States in Panama, a necessary but deplorable fact, as it tends to the aggrandizement of Uncle Sam and his permanent establishment at the south of our country." The influential Catholic news-

papers, such as the *Tiempo*, the *Pais*, and the *Voz de México*, published in the capital, declare that "no justification can be found for the conduct of the United States, the government of which has betrayed the confidence of the Latin-American peoples, has committed a dishonorable act, and has violated the law of nations and the public faith guaranteed by public treaties." The *Tiempo* also says that "the future integrity of Mexico and Central America is put in jeopardy, especially that of Mexico, which, from now on, has been put inside of an iron circle."

Some of the most influential newspapers of Central America, such as the *Diario del Salvador*, the *Latino Americano*, the *Comercio*, of Managua, Nicaragua, and the *República*, of San José, Costa Rica, consider the part taken by the government of the United States in Panama "as a plain robbery, a manifestation of its new imperialistic policy, and a menace to the integrity of the weaker republics on this continent." They know, and confess, that the building of the interoceanic canal is a public necessity; but, they say, "such an end could have been accomplished by means more honorable and just."

WHAT THE PEOPLE READ IN FRANCE.

ONE of the famous names of popular French journalism disappears with the death of Hippolyte Marinoni, the editor-in-chief (or director, as the French say) of *Le Petit Journal*. M. Marinoni was one of the most powerful factors in French public life during the past quarter of a century. *L'Illustration* says of him:

In the quest for models of energy, we almost inevitably turn to America, and we have found among that people the very finest examples when we have named Andrew Carnegie, Charles M. Schwab, and J. Pierpont Morgan. It would seem, however, that in such a category belongs M. Marinoni, director of *Petit Journal*, who has just died, in his eightieth year. The career of this noteworthy man, from the age of ten years, when, as a penniless lad, he watched the cows at the farm at Melun, to the directorship of a daily newspaper of a million and a half circulation, is certainly remarkable enough to have belonged to an American.

THE SERIOUS REVIEWS.

Paris is France so much that the publications of the capital are by far and away more important than those of all the other cities of the republic. The French serious reviews are mostly published twice a month. They are not illustrated, and their contents consist chiefly of rather long articles on literary, artistic, and political

subjects. Topics of a purely popular nature are seldom treated. The dean of these dignified reviews is *La Revue des Deux Mondes*, founded by François Buloz, and at present edited by the well-known critic and member of the Academy, Ferdinand Brunetière. This review is very well known and widely read in all classes of society, not only in France, but abroad. Its pronouncements bear the stamp of authority. *La Revue de Paris* is also well established, and enjoys a good circulation. *La Nouvelle Revue*, formerly owned by the famous Madame Adam, enjoys a large circulation, and is not non-committal, like the *Revue des Deux Mondes* and the *Revue de Paris*, but liberal and progressive, after the stamp of Gambetta. This and *La Revue* (formerly *La Revue des Revues*) are more popular in the articles published. The latter also reviews foreign periodicals in much the same way as the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*. *Le Correspondant* is another of the first-class reviews of the same general nature as those already mentioned, with, however, a leaning to clericalism. It is generally regarded as being pro-Catholic, anti-governmental, and reactionary. *La Revue Bleue* is still more popular in the subjects treated, and less ponderous in size than the others. It treats principally of

politics and literature. *La Revue Universelle* was formerly *La Revue Larousse*. It is edited by the famous Georges Moreau, and is well illustrated, giving special attention to art, literature, and science. *Le Théâtre* is one of the handsomely illustrated bimonthlies. It is devoted to the stage, with some treatment of art in general. Most of these periodicals are quoted from, more or less frequently, in this magazine, in the departments "Leading Articles" and "The Spirit of the Foreign Reviews."

THE ILLUSTRATED WEEKLIES.

The illustrated weekly newspaper is a favorite with the Parisian public. There are a number of these journals, well edited, and generally handsomely illustrated. The oldest is *L'Illustration*, which maintains its high reputation as a weekly "universal journal" in much the same way that *Harper's Weekly* claims to be a "journal of civilization." *Le Monde Illustré* follows closely upon *L'Illustration*. It is almost as old, well printed, and widely read. *L'Univers Illustré* is another of these illustrated weeklies, as are also *La Vie Heureuse*, *La Vie Moderne*, *Paris Illustré*, *Les Arts*, *Les Modes*, and *Figaro Illustré*. *Figaro*, *Les Modes*, and *Paris Illustré* are distinguished by the elegance of their society and fashion illustrations, most of them from photographs of actual living subjects—with references to the maker of the costume, and corresponding increase in the advertising receipts.

Then there are the comic journals. These are scarcely ever bought by the readers, but are to be found in all cafés, and in other public or semi-public places. *La Vie Parisienne* is perhaps the best of these. Its caricatures and political cartoons are well done, and not so coarse as the monstrosities in *Le Rire* and *Le Journal Amusant*.

PARISIAN DAILY JOURNALISM.

Paris has a perfect host of dailies, with circulations varying from a few hundreds to a million and a half. The great representative leader of the French press, which contains all the semi-official governmental announcements, is *Le Temps*. It is Republican-Progressive in its sympathies. It has wide influence, is much read, and for many years has been regarded as the dean of

the French daily press. It is an evening paper. Ranking with it, and resembling it considerably, is *Le Journal des Débats*, also an evening paper, of dignity and seriousness, and an authority for the past thirty years. These two journals are read abroad. They contain news in moderate proportions with a good deal of signed comment on political subjects, dramatic, artistic, and literary miscellany, and the inevitable *feuilleton*, or daily love-story, without which no French daily newspaper could live. Both these leaders are three-cent papers, as are also the *Figaro*, the *Gil Blas*, and the *Gaulois*. The *Figaro* has a large circulation, and is influential. The *Gaulois* is the organ of the Orleanist Conservatives. The *Gil Blas* is of the old political order, and somewhat *risqué* in its tone. The *Matin* is the great newspaper. It makes a specialty of news and signed communications by authorities on politics at home and abroad. *Le Siècle* is radical. *La Liberté* is Republican-Imperial in its tendencies, and *L'Autorité* is violently Bonapartist Imperialistic. *La Lanterne* is a well-read sheet supporting the present government. *La Libre Parole* is anti-Semitic and anti-governmental. *La République Française* is Republican-Progressive, and *La Petite République* is Radical-Socialistic. *Le Petit Parisien*, *L'Éclair*, *La Presse*, *Le Soir*, *L'Écho de Paris*, *La Patrie*, *L'Evenement*, *Le Radical*, *Le Rappel*, *L'Aurore*, *Le Soleil*, and *Le Journal* are other penny papers of more or less influence and varying degree of "yellowness." The "yellow journal" par excellence, however, is *Le Petit Journal*, a small, poorly printed, one-cent journal, which boasts the largest circulation of any daily journal in the world,—a million and a half. It is addressed to all classes and all societies, and makes strong appeals to the love of sensation of the lower French classes. It is Progressive, anti-governmental, and has an immense influence with the laboring people. The other "yellow journal" is *L'Intransigeant*, owned and edited by Henri Rochefort. This is denunciatory, intensely radical, and always against the government.

Until quite recently, provincial journalism in France made but a poor showing. The great Parisian dailies reached all the other cities so quickly that it was scarcely worth while for the journalists of the departments to make much effort. During the last few years, however, a number of influential papers have been published in the other cities. Such, for example, are *Le Petit Marseillais*, *Le Soleil du Midi*, published at Marseilles, radical; *La Dépêche*, of Toulouse, and *La Gironde*, of Bordeaux; *Le Novelliste*, of Rouen; *Le Progrès de Lyon* and *Le Lyon Républicain*, of Lyons, and *L'Écho du Nord*, of Lille.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE STRUGGLE IN THE FAR EAST.

THE articles in the English reviews for February, having been written while negotiations between Russia and Japan were still pending, are largely taken up with discussions of the ways by which an immediate conflict might be avoided. Some of the writers, however, seem to have given up all hope of a peaceful settlement, and to concern themselves only with the chances of the rival powers in actual war. Thus, Mr. Alfred Stead, writing in the *World's Work* on the relative advantages in the positions occupied by Russia and Japan, says:

"As to the chances of a war at the present season, they are, in the opinion of the present writer, all in favor of Japan. Vladivostok, where are situated the only docks available, save one at Port Arthur, will be frozen in shortly; the small harbor space at Port Arthur will force her fleet to try conclusions with the Japanese. The latter can place seven battleships, seven armored cruisers, and sixteen unarmored cruisers in line against Russia's eight battleships, five armored cruisers, and fourteen unarmored cruisers. Japan's vessels are modern and homogeneous, and, most important item of all, the crews know the coasts and seas. The Japanese desire above all things to have a decisive action at the very beginning of the war. A victory then would mean command of the sea and immunity from any attack upon Japanese territory, while even a drawn battle would leave the advantage on Japan's side, since the Russian vessels could not repair, while the Japanese have every facility close at hand. It is for this reason that it is all to Russia's interest to postpone a conflict until the spring, when Vladivostok is again open, and Japan would have to divide her fleet in order to deal with the two naval bases of Russia. Everything, therefore, would seem to point to Japanese action just as soon as Vladivostok is frozen up."

This supplies a reason for Japan's quick blows at the outset which has not always been taken into account in our observations of the war.

Mr. Stead further points out that during the Chino-Japanese War the Japanese officers traversed all the country in which a war with Russia would take place. "It may be taken as certain that the Manchuria railway will be destroyed—by brigands, by honest Chinese farmers, by any one who is anxious for a good, useful piece of iron." During peaceful times, the Russians

found it hard enough to prevent this. Russia will have difficulty in getting a loan. Japan will find it easy to do so in England. Mr. Stead concludes, "Close to her base, opposed to an adversary thousands of miles away, Japan, I think, has every chance of winning her fight."

Russia's Internal Weakness.

"Calchas," in the *Fortnightly Review*, writes on "First Principles in the Far East." He considers that there is not the slightest doubt that Great Britain will do her duty by her ally, but pleads that the possible consequences of a Japanese-Russian conflict in Europe may not be overlooked. He says:

"Internally, Russia is not strengthening, but is weakening. By comparison with the four others that have been mentioned, she is weaker than she has ever been. Her diplomacy, beneath a superficial appearance of audacity, has betrayed more and more, during recent years, a profound consciousness of debility. She is well aware that she is confronted by the serious danger of finding Japan intrenched across her path in the far East, England in the middle East, and Germany in the near East. She cannot make up her mind to seek a remedy for her situation by making friends with that one of these three powers whose friendship she might count the least costly, and whose help, if it could be had for any of her purposes, would be the most advantageous. She cannot, at the present moment, risk war upon any one of her three chief fronts without running the danger of permanently sacrificing her interests on the other two. Her internal condition means that defeat would involve perils without limit."

TOO MUCH VITUPERATION.

He deplores the campaign of calumny against Russia and all that is Russian, finding in it a curious parallel to Great Britain's position with regard to the South African war.

"As a matter of honor, even well-bred duelists do not vituperate before they engage, and it would make a saving change in the whole attitude of international politics if the press of every country would on principle avoid libeling the adversary it thinks it may have to fight. If the newspapers of every country could unlearn the habit of imputing peculiar evil to the policy of all the countries with which they disagree, it would be far more serviceable to the cause of

peace among men than all the efforts of the Hague conference."

THE VALUE OF KOREA.

"Calchas" thus sums up the situation so far as it touches Korea:

"Japan must fight for Korea if she cannot get it otherwise. It is with her a matter of life and death. Upon Russia's part, it is not absolutely a matter of life and death, but the possession of Korea would be an asset of such extraordinary importance; the final loss of the peninsula by Russia would be a check so complete and depressing, a disadvantage so decisive and permanent in its character, that any power in Russia's situation would be justified in fighting for Korea if there were a reasonable prospect of success. With the new great power intrenched in Korea, Russia will be commanded by Japan in the Yellow Sea quite as effectively as she is commanded by Germany in the Baltic. Powerful as Russia's position would be in Korea, that of Japan, for all naval purposes, at least, would be far more so. It would throw the sea power of the far East into her hands permanently. Settled upon both sides of the Straits of Korea, she could cut the communications between Vladivostok and Port Arthur at will. From the military point of view, Japan, once fully installed in northern Korea, would be close upon the flank of the Manchurian railway. Intrenched in this position, Japan would have the best prospects of achieving the permanent supremacy in the far East. It will be seen that if ever there was a case of the irreconcilable antagonism of fundamental interests, it is this. Any power, we repeat, in the position of Russia would be justified a thousand times from its own point of view in fighting for Korea if, upon consideration of all the circumstances, there were a reasonable prospect of success, and if there were no danger of sacrificing even more important interests elsewhere."

Japan's Case.

Dr. Dillon, in his *résumé* of foreign affairs in the *Contemporary Review*, deals at length with the far East. He makes several very good points which are generally overlooked by writers on this subject.

"Suppose," he says, "for the sake of argument, that parchment treaties had for Russia and Japan to-day the same value that they formerly possessed, and do still possess, in the eyes, say, of France and England in the matter of Newfoundland, a good workable agreement might be come to in a week. For between the avowed aims of Russia and the maximum claims of Japan there is a margin quite large enough to

supply materials for a satisfactory compromise. Take, for instance, Japan's case as stated to me by one of the Mikado's most fair-minded diplomatic representatives in Europe. A few years ago, she acquired a portion of southern Manchuria by right of conquest, such as the law of nations still deems a sufficient title. The war of which that territorial acquisition was the upshot cost her immense sums of money—and that expense is held to constitute a further, and indeed a flawless, title to territory in the far East. Russia cannot belittle these arguments without throwing up her own case, which is founded on them, or, rather, on only one of the two.

"But Russia forced Japan to waive her right, on the ground that China's integrity is indispensable to the weal of the world. Whatever else might happen, China's territory must remain inviolate and inviolable. Japan, therefore, making a virtue of necessity, cleared out of southern Manchuria, whereupon Russia, forgetful of her anxiety for the Celestial Empire, entered in and occupied, not merely the southern districts, but the entire province. The occupation, however, was only temporary, Russia said, and pledged herself to evacuate the country on a certain date. Indignant at this breach of faith, as they termed it, the Japs none the less remained cool. They wisely resolved to refrain from protests and demonstrations, to accept Russia's word, and wait patiently till the date fixed for returning the province to China should arrive. Not until it had come and gone without bringing any change of masters in Manchuria did the government of the Mikado move, and then they put forward a claim to compensation in Korea, and to the benefits assured them by their treaty rights in Manchuria."

The crux of the Korean question Dr. Dillon rightly surmises to lie in the possession of the fortifiable ports at the extreme south of the peninsula,—the right to create a second Dardanelles in the Straits of Korea. "Russia's interest in occupying these two ports, or at least Masampho, is enormous, but only if she be resolved absolutely to annex all Manchuria."

ARBITRATION IMPOSSIBLE.

Arbitration Dr. Dillon considers impossible. Suppose, he says:

"That the Hague tribunal tried the case to the best of its ability, the issue it would have to decide is which of the two parties enjoys a sacred or inalienable right to rob a third state of a rich province and a fourth power of everything it owns. To put the matter ironically but plainly, it would be as if two thieves, having fallen out over the distribution of the booty

which they expected from a burglary as yet only planned, were to take their differences before one of his majesty's judges and ask him to try the case according to his conscience and the law of the realm. They would not, perhaps, allege that their honor was at stake, but that would be needless. And the translation into plain laconic English of any judgment come to by the international tribunal would run, approximately: 'and for the aforesaid reasons his Imperial Majesty N.N. alone possesses the right lawfully to despoil his Imperial Majesty the Chinese Emperor of his province of Manchuria, and further to wrest from the grasp of his Imperial Majesty the Emperor of Korea all the territories which he inherited from his forefathers, without any reserve whatever.'

THE FUTURE—JAPAN.

"The Japanese Government relies less, very much less, upon any terms agreed to by Russia than upon its own ability to enforce them; and as this is necessarily a quantity which as time goes on decreases relatively to its rival, they are embarrassed sorely. 'We would gladly make terms with Russia,' remarked my Japanese informant, 'but she will keep them only until such time as she can afford to disregard them, and that, of course, will be the moment when we can no longer object efficaciously to her backslidings. We cannot trust Russia,—her diplomatic bonds have fallen deeper than her paper money during the Crimean War.'

"The utmost, then, that can reasonably be anticipated is the maintenance of peace for a very limited time. And this is all the more to be regretted that the terms of any *modus vivendi* agreed upon would necessarily include one important stipulation at least, which would be useless if not enduring. That would be a clause granting to Japan certain substantial commercial concessions in Manchuria, in consideration of her waiving the right to claim immediate compensation in Korea for Russia's occupation of Manchuria. . . . Manchuria, if the doctrine of the 'open door' were upheld, would be a present to the nations at Russia's expense. Its markets would be flooded with Japanese, American, English, and German wares, to the exclusion of Muscovite goods; and Russia would thus by a stroke of a pen have thwarted the policy which she had for years been pursuing at enormous cost.

THE FUTURE—RUSSIA.

"Russian troops will be massed on the Chinese border in such numbers as to sweep away all opposition, provided always that there be time

enough to execute the plan. The naval squadron, however, will be kept in far-Eastern waters, despite the hundreds of millions which it absorbs and its doubtful prospects of sweeping the sea.

"And it is the knowledge of that scheme which causes the Japs to exercise more than their usual caution, and to think well before patching up the quarrel for a year or two. What they eagerly desire is lasting peace, not a disadvantageous truce. Whether it will be concluded, no man can say. The only clear points are its difficulties, which consist, on the one hand, in the impossibility of Japan ceding the two ports of Masampho and Mokpho to Russia and the fixed resolve of the latter power to hinder them from falling into the hands of Japan, and, on the other side, in the impossibility of Russia adopting the policy of the 'open door' in Manchuria. And unless these impossibilities become feasible, it will be as difficult to conclude a lasting peace as to build a palace over an abyss."

A Defensive War on Japan's Part.

Mr. Joseph Longford, late British consul at Nagasaki, gives an historical survey of Japanese relations with Korea. He sums up the present situation as follows:

"The wonder is that Japan, in the face of the continued provocation she has received, has not struck before. Now she may perhaps be driven into striking the first blow; but even if that be so, the war will on her part be as purely defensive as any that has ever been waged in history, and will be entered upon by her with the utmost reluctance, actuated by no selfish motives of aggression, only as the very last resource for the preservation of what she considers essential to her national safety."

PENSIONS IN JAPAN.

GLOOMY forebodings over the inevitable result of a war to the widows and orphans of Japan are indulged in by the *Heimin Shimbin*, a weekly socialistic journal published in Tokio. Whether a war with Russia end in a victory for Japan or not, says this journal, "we are sure it will bring dreadful calamities upon mankind." The *Shimbin* then has the following to say about the Japanese pension system:

"In 1902, the law was amended in the sense of increasing the grants in aid of these families. According to the law, the allowances granted by the state to the families of military men killed in battle, or died from the effects of wounds received in battle, are:

To the family of a—	Yen. annually.
Private soldier	36 to 57
Non-commissioned officer	60 to 150
Second lieutenant	180
First lieutenant	225
Captain	300
Major	450
Lieutenant-colonel	600
Colonel	750

"These allowances are given during the life of the widow, and are discontinued if she marries again; and there are special regulations relating to motherless children. Roughly speaking, the above allowances are one-third of the pay received by the officer or soldier during the life. It is quite obvious that from the rank of captain downward the allowances are quite insufficient to support a family. As things now stand, the widow and children of a soldier killed in battle may find themselves condemned to support life on a miserable pittance of thirty-five cents a week. . . . We do not argue that greater generosity on the part of the state is essential, but we wish the cause that will bring such calamities will be entirely stopped."

MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP IN TOKIO.

AN interesting article on the problem of municipal ownership in the Japanese capital is contributed to the *Sun Trade Journal* ("Published in Tokio, in English and Japanese: A Faithful Exponent of Oriental Affairs, Especially Devoted to Commerce and Industry") by Prof. Iso Abe. This writer recounts the struggles of Tokio to become a modern city in the fullest sense. To-day, the members of the council are elected in the same way as in Berlin. Public works, transportation, education, and sanitation are carried on according to methods of civilized cities all over the world. Tokio has a water system, street railways, electric and gas lighting, good macadamized roads, and even a few public libraries. And yet, says Professor Abe, the public men of Tokio "have not the least idea about the municipal ownership of monopolies. . . . Municipal ownership is not only a matter of justice, but also a matter of expediency." The municipal government of the Japanese capital has lost several opportunities for monopolizing gas and electric-light plants, street railways, and markets. The water system is the only one owned by the city. The great obstacle in the way of municipal ownership, Professor Abe believes, is the unwholesome influence of party politics in the municipal government. In August, 1898, the city council of Tokio offered to build and operate street railways, but it is a well-known and at the same time disgraceful fact that the same council offered to grant the fran-

chise to a private company in November, 1899. Why did such a change come over the council? Politics. . . . The franchise was given to the private company which is now known as the Street Railway Company, and the people were thus robbed of their best source of revenue." The terms of the contract between the municipality and the Street Railway Company, signed in June, 1900, "are unreasonable and extravagant." The terms are until March 30, 1952, and it is stipulated that when there is a surplus, after deducting 7 per cent. as interest on the capital and 10 per cent. for the reserve fund, one-third of that sum shall be delivered to that municipality. After 1932, the municipality "may purchase the property of the company by paying a reasonable price for it." The rate of fare and hours of employees' service must be sanctioned by the minister of the interior and the chief of the metropolitan police. We must look, says Dr. Abe, to municipal ownership as our ideal.

EFFORTS TOWARD MUNICIPALIZATION.

"When the officers of the Tokio Street Railway Company were quarreling among themselves about the question of the amalgamation of the two street-railway companies, the city council began to think how the street railways might be municipalized. A committee was appointed at once to investigate the matter, and Mr. Ozaki, the mayor, had an interview with the minister of the interior to ask his opinion about the problem. We are now eagerly watching the progress of the movement. . . . It is a noted fact that the home department is encouraging the home rule of towns and villages in various ways. Officers have been sent to many villages and towns, recently, to make a thorough investigation, and some of them are selected as model towns and villages. If you were to listen to the reports of these officers, you would learn that almost all model communities have public property, such as forests and meadows. There is no doubt that the success of home rule depends much on public property from which some amount of interest can be derived. If it is so, home rule in the city must also be modeled in the same way. What forests and meadows are to towns and villages, monopolies are to the city. . . . Is it not contradictory to encourage the public ownership of forests and meadows in villages and to discountenance the municipal ownership of monopolies? The water system is the only monopoly that is already municipalized in Tokio, but gas and electric plants, markets, abattoirs, and street railways are still managed by private corporations. Considering the rapid

increase of population, and consequently of expenditure. Tokio must municipalize all these monopolies sooner or later. If it is asked when these should be municipalized, I would say without the least hesitation, 'the sooner the better.'

CHRISTMAS AND NEW YEAR'S IN RUSSIA.

THE Swedish magazine *Affärsvärlden* (Stockholm) contains a profusely illustrated article describing the Russian Christmas, which, like the English, has its gift-hung tree, its presents, and its merry-making. Rice and raisins, however, take the place of our plum pudding, and this meal by ancient custom is eaten on Christmas Eve. On Christmas Day, the priests visit neighboring families to hold a short service, during which every one and everything—the worshipers, the walls, and the furniture—have holy water sprinkled over them, the gratitude of the people expressing itself to the priests in cash, according to their means. Small street-arabs jostle each other in the competition of "praising Christ" for a copper or two at the various houses. Superstition is rife in Russia at this season, and the writer recounts some of the weird ceremonies that obtain for the purpose of letting men and maidens know their fate. One such may, perhaps, be mentioned. A glass of water is placed before the image of some saint, the yolk of an egg is dropped into it, and in the morning the yolk, by the shape it has assumed, will give a clear sign of the future. It is considered advisable, however, to turn the image of the saint to the wall, lest it hinder the desired result.

HOW THE NEW YEAR IS USHERED IN.

The New Year is celebrated with service in the churches. At midnight, the Czar receives good wishes, a cannonade of one hundred shots is fired, and the flag-decked streets are illuminated with electric lights and colored lanterns. On the eve of "sotjelnik"—the last day of the holiday season—a cross is chalked on the doors to hinder the entrance of Satan, who has partaken in the festivities, and the people also fast. On that day, there are no public amusements. Instead, at 2 o'clock, a solemn service is held outside the Winter Palace, for which purpose a round building with a pale-blue cupola is erected, and from this steps lead down to the river, where the water is blessed and thus becomes endowed with the power of healing. Many true Christians, says the narrator, come down here at night to dip themselves and thus get rid of the sins they have brought upon themselves during this season of gayety.

BRITISH SUPREMACY IN INDIA.

AT the Nineteenth Indian National Congress, recently held in Calcutta, the president, Mr. Ghose, bewailed British domination as prejudicial to the best interests of the Hindus. He said :

"Are we to believe that the policy which many years ago killed our indigenous industries, which even only the other day and under a Liberal administration unblushingly imposed excise duties on our cotton manufactures, which steadily drains our national resources to the extent of something like twenty millions sterling per annum, and which, by imposing heavy burdens on our agricultural population, increases the frequency and intensity of our famines to an extent unknown in former times,—are we to believe that the various administrative acts which have led to these results were directly inspired by a beneficent Providence?"

Commenting on this presidential address, the *Indian Nation* says, editorially :

"Admitting all the grievances that can be urged against the government, can it be denied that British rule has been the salvation of the country? We must confess we do not share, we do not even understand, Mr. Ghose's indignation at the remark that British supremacy in India is a divine dispensation. This is not the place to write a history of the beginnings of English rule or to attempt a description of this country, its princes and peoples, at the time when the scepter seemed to pass naturally from the nerveless grasp of the Mogul into the steady and righteous hands that have since wielded it. But the most superficial observation will suffice to show that for the peoples of India, never welded into a nation, and incapable of union, self-government, and spontaneous development, British rule was a necessity. . . . We do not believe it is claimed in any quarter that particular administrative acts have been directly inspired by Providence; but it may be safely said that, admitting,—at any rate, for argument's sake,—every item of Mr. Ghose's impeachment, British rule has been better than any other rule that preceded it in modern times, that it has averted many possible calamities and prepared the way for many possible benefits, and that on this ground it may be regarded as a beneficent divine intervention. Without British rule, where would have been our political and social congresses and conferences, a free press, legal equality, the aspirations which we want to be gratified, the notion of popular rights, the recognition of the responsibilities of government, the material benefits of the railway, the telegraph, and the factory, the multifarious blessings implied

in *Pax Britannica*, the schools and colleges and hospitals open to all, and that modern culture of which Mr. Ghose himself is one of the finest products?"

THE FRENCH PROTECTORATE OVER MOROCCO.

GERMAN colonial aspirations find voice in Joachim Count von Pfeil's discussion of the coming French protectorate over Morocco in the *Deutsche Monatsschrift* (Berlin). French designs on Morocco are very evident. Frenchmen have quietly taken possession of the Tuat oases, and are now about to occupy the Muluya valley and cross the natural frontier of the Atlas Mountains. Count von Pfeil believes that Germany ought now to speak her mind, as she and England are the only two powers directly interested in this move of France, both being colonial powers having considerable commercial relations with Morocco. Since England and France have now agreed on the Morocco question, this writer suggests that the former cede to the latter her interests in that country, in return for other concessions,—perhaps the recognition of England's continued paramountcy in Egypt.

By acquiring Morocco, France would add fifty thousand square miles to her colonial area. She would get control of the trade, thereby benefiting French industry at the expense of the German markets. By developing the agriculture of Morocco, under the very favorable conditions of climate and soil, France would soon be enabled to flood the markets of northern Europe with high-grade cereals at low cost, thus becoming a dangerous competitor of the struggling German farmer. The mineral wealth of the country is such that, with proper governmental encouragement, important iron industries could be developed. Morocco, in short, is a rich plum, both politically and industrially, for any nation drawing it within its sphere of influence.

In view of these facts, the writer thinks that it is incumbent upon Germany to neutralize the effects of a French protectorate by diplomacy, by insisting on the maintenance of the *status quo* in Morocco and the carrying out of the provisions of the Madrid convention and the German commercial treaty. He finally suggests that other nations, as well as France, have the right to advance toward Morocco, proposing an approach on the more accessible side, from the coast of the Atlantic toward the northwestern slopes of the Atlas Mountains.

GERMANY'S NEED FOR EXPANSION.

The need of expansion, moreover, which urges other nations to seize upon new territory, justi-

fies Germany also in looking toward Morocco. "Everywhere in the world we see how other nations advance their own interests. Russia occupies Manchuria, England is marching upon Thibet,—not because much may be found there, but because she is forced to do so for self-preservation,—and she conquers entire South Africa without opposition. France occupies the Tuat oases unhindered. Why should similar proceedings on our part be considered unjust? We have the same rights [as regards Morocco] which Russia claims in her Manchurian policy, France in North Africa, and England in South Africa. The assertion that Morocco belongs to the French because they first brought it to the attention of the world can hardly be maintained, for, although French explorers were among the first to enter Morocco, they all followed in the footsteps of the great German, Gerhard Rohlfs. We, more than all other peoples, are in duty bound to expand. The colonial possessions of France are already nearly five times as great as ours. The colonies of England cover half the world. Both these countries have assured the future of their trade and industry by acquiring commercial territory free from competition. We only have not yet had time to add to our country more than a very modest piece of the globe,—regions, moreover, requiring much labor and cultivation before they can become markets for our industries or settlements for the overflow of our population. . . . Morocco is a highly important country for us. Our commerce with it is even now very considerable, and will become increasingly important as the purchasing power of its people grows. No other market of the future is so near to us or capable of so much development. No other country on the globe could make us so independent, by supplying us with cereals when our own acres will no longer be sufficient to feed us. France may need Morocco, but we need it also, for its commerce and agriculture, for our future industries, and especially for the expansion of our people."

TOLSTOY ON THE ORTHODOX RELIGION OF RUSSIA.

COUNT TOLSTOY has written for the *Revue de Paris* an article entitled "What the Orthodox Religion Really Is." He indicts the Russian national Church for apostasy to the tenets of the founder of Christianity on almost every count, and gives this description of the orthodox religion, which, he declares, is losing its hold on the people:

"Orthodox religion brings to my mind only a lot of long-haired men, who are very arrogant,

without instruction, clothed in silk and velvet, decorated with ornaments and jewels, whom one calls archbishops and metropolitans, and thousands of other men, with hair uncombed, who find themselves under the most servile domination of a few individuals who, under color of dispensing the sacraments, cheat and rob the people. How can I have faith in this Church and believe, if to a man who asks from the bottom of his soul it replies only by the most miserable deceptions, by insanities, and affirms that no one has the right to make any other reply to these questions? . . . I may choose the color of my trousers, I may take a wife according to my taste, but in other respects, in those in which I feel myself a man, I must ask these imbecile people, these fools and deceivers. As a guide of my life in the innermost corner of my soul, I am to have the pastor, the priest of my parish, who has just come from the seminary, a shallow boy, almost illiterate, or an aged drunkard, whose only care is to acquire as many fowls and pigs as he can. If during prayer the deacon asks long life for the adulteress, Catherine the Second, or for Peter, that robber and assassin who blasphemed the Gospel, I must pray for that. Often these miserable wretches have asked that my brothers be burned or hanged, and I must cry '*Anathema!*' These men declare that my brethren shall be cursed, and I must cry '*Anathema!*' They insist that I shall drink wine in a little spoon, and assert that it is not wine, but the blood of the body of God,—and I must do it. Oh, but it is terrible!"

HOW AND WHY ANIMALS ARE COLORED.

THIS subject, while by no means a new one, is remarkably well treated, in the *Pall Mall Magazine*, by Mr. R. I. Pocock, of the zoological department, Natural History Museum. Two of the illustrations accompanying the paper,—those of the water buck and the Gueripe monkey,—are reproduced herewith.

SEASONAL ADJUSTMENT OF COLORS.

A seasonal adjustment is constantly going on between colors of the animals and those of their environment. Polar bears, for instance, are perennially white.

"In the case of many of the Arctic seals, the pups are clothed with fluffy snow-white hair, so that while still unable to swim and compelled to lie on the snow, they may escape the notice of the polar bears; but on the Antarctic ice, where the seals have neither bears nor any land carnivora to fear, the young are born with the colors of their parents."

PROTECTIVE COLORING OFTEN UNNECESSARY.

The coloring of animals is by no means always protective. Where concealment is not needed animals tend to assume a uniformly dark coloration.

THE WATER BUCK.

"No animal exceeds the common mole in the jetty blackness of its fur. Its subterranean life and the nature of its food make protective coloration superfluous. Ravens, rooks, and carrion

crows are conspicuous everywhere by their blackness. They have no need for concealment, since they feed upon food that requires no catching, are unmolested by raptorial birds, and nest out of reach of rapacious mammals. So, too, with bears. Black is the color characteristic of these animals, as is testified by its prevalence in nearly all the known species."

All cats, however, are, in general, protectively colored. Their whole organization "is a perfected mechanism for catching and killing living prey by a sudden pounce from a point of vantage."

"With very few exceptions, the ground tint of the coat is some shade of yellow or gray, re-

streaming through the leaves of the trees, or uniformly dark in tint, to accord with the dense forests or jungle which they inhabit. The colors of wild sheep and goats blend with those of their surroundings too perfectly for detection except by the most practised eye; and unless silhouetted against the sky as they stand on peaks or ridges, they are fairly safe. When giraffes stand in a clump of acacias, they are practically invisible at a little distance.

COLORING ALIKE PROTECTIVE AND DISTINCTIVE.

It is not possible to cite all Mr. Pocock's extremely interesting instances of animals' coloring; but one fact he mentions is not very generally known.

The hind quarters of monkeys and certain herbivora (the water buck, for instance) are very conspicuously colored; but there is a reason for this conspicuousness. Both these classes of animals are apt to dash off headlong through the trees, and their striking coloring serves the useful purpose of enabling any laggers to keep up. Mr. Pocock concludes:

"All facts in natural history have to be looked at from two points of view,—the 'how' and the 'why.' With regard to the coloring of beasts, the 'why,' in many instances, is known, and can be guessed, in others, from that knowledge; in some few, it still remains a puzzle, from dearth of observations of the animals in their natural haunts."

THE GUERIN MONKEY.

lieved by black markings forming spots, patches, or stripes. The yellowish skin of the tiger, with its vertical black stripes, blends with the fading stalks of the jungle grass, and with the dark interspaces between them."

MOST MONKEYS PROTECTIVELY COLORED.

Monkeys are generally, if not always, protectively colored.

"Some shade of gray, often with a yellowish or brownish tinge, and frequently relieved by darker or lighter patches, is the prevailing color of the body, while white spots or patches are in some cases developed upon the face. Since monkeys are exceptionally keen-sighted and ever on the watch when awake, it is probable that the usefulness of concealment comes in chiefly at night, when pythons, constrictors, and climbing nocturnal carnivora search for them sleeping in the trees."

DEER, WILD SHEEP, AND GOATS.

Deer are always either spotted with white, the effect of which resembles that of sunlight

ALASKA'S RAILROADS.

THE pioneer railroad in Alaska was the White Pass & Yukon Railroad, completed about five years ago for the purpose of connecting the Klondike region with the outer world. This road, only 112 miles in length, had many engineering obstacles to contend with, and is still operated in the winter with the greatest difficulty. In his article on "Arctic Railway Building" in *Cassier's* for January, Mr. George E. Walsh reminds us that the builders of the White Pass road were considered rash in attempting to construct and operate a line in such a region; and yet their investments have proved exceedingly profitable.

"Last year, this same road paid 60 per cent. dividends to its stockholders, and its stock sold in Chicago at the exceedingly high price of \$750 per share. When the shares were first offered to the public, they were sold at \$6.50 apiece, and the par value was \$10. This phenomenal increase in value is due to the rapidly improving conditions in Alaska, and to the tremendous impetus to travel given by the line. Summer via-

itors now go through the Yukon Pass in ever-increasing numbers, and all along the old trail covered by the road adventurous tourists swarm in summer.

HOW THE RAILROAD REDUCED LIVING EXPENSES.

"As a matter of fact, this pioneer northern road has proved as advantageous to the public as to its stockholders. Besides annually attracting thousands of tourists to the old gold fields, the road has benefited the dwellers within the Arctic Circle by greatly reducing the cost of living. Before the line was constructed, it was very costly to get supplies in the gold region, as they had to be taken over the Pass on the backs of men. This cost from 30 cents to \$1 per pound, and the goods delivered in Dawson at this price were well worth it. In the rush season of the year, it was impossible to hire enough men to carry the goods over the Pass for the outside price.

"The building of the railway, however, immediately altered conditions. Besides opening an artery of travel which could accommodate all who wished to pass on to Dawson, the road brought the cost of goods-transportation down to something less than five and six cents per pound. To-day, the official charge averages four and three-quarters of a cent per pound. The benefits to the gold-seekers and settlers in the Klondike region, and Dawson in particular, are naturally great; but the chief good comes from the continued rush of new settlers to the region, who are attracted both by the gold prospects and the fact that Alaska offers a fertile field for other industries."

CAPE NOME'S "WILD GOOSE RAILROAD."

Mr. Walsh also describes the transportation situation at the Cape Nome gold fields, where a railroad was almost as imperatively demanded as in the Klondike region.

"Cape Nome is fully as important as the Klondike region, from the gold-seeker's point of view; but it has a barren coast so rough and inhospitable that ships cannot approach nearer than two or three miles. There are no good harbors, and the ships carrying supplies to this place have to lighten their cargo ashore through a difficult sea. It is not only a wasteful practice of getting supplies into Cape Nome, but it is dangerous and expensive. With even such poor facilities for landing cargoes, and the resulting high prices for all the ordinary commodities of life, the city of Nome has sprung up and grown into a town of twenty thousand inhabitants. The excuse for its existence may

be the hidden treasures of gold, but it is a city established to stay. Its inhabitants are branching out more and more into new lines of industry. Farming, timber-raising, hunting, and even manufacturing, are developing about this city of the far north.

"Two years ago, the traffic from the coast to the city became so great that a second railway was built. This small road was known from the beginning as the 'Wild Goose Railroad.' It connects the city of Nome with Anvil Creek, and, although only about five miles long, it has proved an excellent feeder to the city. Miners and tourists coming from Anvil Creek and the coast can take the railway and cross the five miles of rugged country in comparative ease and comfort.

"This little 'Wild Goose Road' has proved a money-maker, for it has in a single summer made more than nine times the cost of constructing and equipping it, and its stock has soared far above par."

THE "NORTH STAR LINE."

Of the various railroad lines projected under the Arctic Circle, the only one now in the course of construction is the "North Star Line," which promises to do great things for the Seward Peninsula, and to provide the key to the great trans-Siberian-Bering Strait railway route, concerning which Mr. Walsh says:

"The dream of an all-land route to Europe by a tunnel under Bering Strait is no longer a picture of the imagination, but promises to become an assured fact within the present decade. There will be fewer engineering difficulties and expenses in building it than in cutting a canal through Panama. Surveys of the route have already been made and studied, and capital has actually been organized to undertake the preliminary work.

"The new road, or 'North Star Line,' will become an important feeder to this new overland route, or possibly a part of the main branch. For the present, however, it opens up a part of the Seward Peninsula. This small peninsula juts far out into the ocean, and almost reaches Siberia. It contains famous Cape Nome, and it is rich in gold deposits and fine agricultural land. The Solomon River runs up through a part of this section, affording a fine harbor on the coast thirty or forty miles east of the city of Nome. This is about the only good harbor on the southern shore of Seward Peninsula, and its importance is easily recognized. Solomon City, at the mouth of the river, has grown rapidly, and is now an important seaport.

"Fifty-odd miles from the river's mouth is Council City, another town which has had ex-

tremely rapid growth. The North Star Line will run from Solomon City to Council City, and thus connect the seacoast with a distributing point far up in the interior. The whole interior of the Cape Nome region will thus be opened up and a new impetus be given to traffic both in freight and passengers.

"The building of this railway is far less of an experiment than either that of the White Pass & Yukon line or the Wild Goose road, as others soon to be projected will prove easier and less experimental than the North Star Line. The road will be constructed on comparatively level land, following the course of the river's bank, and cutting through very few high hills. When finished, it will tap one of the richest timber regions of Alaska, making it possible to construct it at less expense than most of the other roads, which have had to use timber ties brought from Oregon and Washington. The growth of timber in the region of the new road is very dense and valuable, and its distribution to the coast cities will prove of great commercial importance.

"The whole Seward Peninsula has been mapped out with railway projects, which in a short time will undoubtedly be completed. It will also produce large crops of barley, oats, and buckwheat, to support an extensive cattle-raising industry. There are few countries better fitted for cattle ranges than the coast of this peninsula, as the Japan current warms the coast to a moderate temperature, even though the interior may be locked in ice and snow.

"Carrying freight from ships inland from forty to fifty miles costs about two hundred dollars per ton to-day; but with the new railways constructed, the same freight will be carried for less than one-tenth of that amount. Railway prospects in Alaska are thus more promising than in any other part of the United States. The Western Alaska Construction Company, engaged in building the new North Star Line, will spend upward of a million dollars in the next year in opening up the Solomon River region, while the other companies organized will expend several times this amount."

THE CARNEGIE INSTITUTION.

"THE most munificent individual gift ever made for the promotion of knowledge,"—with these words Prof. Simon Newcomb characterizes Mr. Carnegie's endowment of the institution known by his name, the generous terms of which were made public nearly two years ago. Professor Newcomb's opinions as to the methods thus far pursued by the management of this

great scientific trust are expressed with candor and clearness in the February number of the *North American Review*.

In regard to the various investigations and schemes of individual research assisted by the Carnegie Institution's funds, Professor Newcomb freely admits the value and importance of these objects, and their worthiness of the support accorded them. He merely raises the question whether a more comprehensive plan of work would not have been advisable. That the adopted policy will lead to a measurable extension of scientific research on its present plane, he thinks is undeniable; but will it elevate the plane?

SCIENTIFIC WORK ON A HIGHER PLANE.

To make his meaning clear, Professor Newcomb proceeds to give his own idea of what seems to him the ideal course to be pursued by an institution established at Washington for carrying on scientific researches on a large scale, and at the same time promoting the intellectual development of the country.

"In this case, the first question to be considered is not What assistance do the scientific investigators in the country need in carrying on their work? but, rather, What are the needs of science at the present time? This difference may seem a small one: but, small as it is, it is the pivot on which the whole policy of the institution must turn. If the collective policy had been adopted, a consultation with the best authorities, acting either as individuals or as committees, would, of course, have been the first step. But a well-understood condition would be that, while an adviser thus called in was not prohibited from making known either the wants of his special work or his own desires as to what he should undertake, such wants and desires should be assigned a subsidiary place. The knowledge which is sought is not that relating to work now in hand, but to the work which will be wanted by the future, and which can be initiated by an institution having very large means at its command. We want to know what the future can be made if progress is aided by a munificent endowment. In a word, the work is not to be started on the present plane, but on a plane a stage higher than the resources of the past admitted of its reaching."

Professor Newcomb points out that in recent years scientific men have been industriously engaged in amassing observations of nature's phenomena in all departments, while the results of those observations are yet to be derived. Now, what can be done by an institution of this kind to further the extracting and formulating of such results? There must be a systematizing

of advanced scientific work such as no existing institution has yet attempted.

TO SUPPLEMENT UNIVERSITY WORK.

"The carrying out of such a system of investigation as is here mapped out requires an organization,—a coöperating body of men collected in a single spot, profiting by their mutual advice and experience, and clarifying each other's ideas by discussion of the obscure and difficult points arising at every step. The end aimed at is so different from that of any existing institution of learning that no association with such an institution is necessary. The best place for the institution is the city of Washington. In order to reach the highest state of efficiency, it would become, to a greater or less extent, a teaching agency; but it would not compete with any existing institution of learning, because its teaching would be of a more specialized and advanced character. It would simply supplement the work of our universities and colleges. The doctor of philosophy emerging from one of these institutions has plenty of theoretical knowledge and practical training in the direction of whatever science he has been studying at his university, but he has no training in the special work of the institution whose functions we have been outlining. Why is the twentieth century advancing without our nation enjoying the great advantage of having at its capital the atmosphere which such an institution would diffuse through its life?"

PRIMITIVE CHRISTIANITY AND MODERN SOCIALISM.

SOME interesting and striking analogies between early Christianity and modern socialism are pointed out by J. Noviców, the Russian student of social and economic questions, in *La Revue* (Paris). From these analogies he prophesies the ultimate triumph of socialism, with, however, some radical modifications of its present programme. In the first place, he says:

"The gospel of socialism, like that of Christianity, is delivered by the very outcasts of society. The most obscure persons set themselves to preach the new doctrines among the poor and disinherited. The movement is from low to high. The followers of the new doctrines band themselves in all sorts of associations, often in secret societies. Soon the local groups unite and become an organization, which rapidly solidifies. In the reunions, the sentimental needs of the votaries assert themselves in a peremptory manner. The early Christians had their love feasts. The modern socialists have their banquets, their

choral fêtes, and their pleasure outings to the country."

The doctrines were elaborated in similar ways. "Many writings are circulated. Some are better known than others, and acquire special authority. They are then declared canonical by the leaders of the sect. Just as the Christian Church, in the second and third centuries, chose from among the numerous gospels the writings of Matthew, of Mark, of Luke, and of John, and pronounced these the only ones inspired of God, so to-day socialism has chosen the writings of Karl Marx, and affirms that they embody the true economic doctrine."

STRIKING SIMILARITIES.

Other striking similarities appear at once. There were many heresies among the early Christians, and the sect was obliged to pronounce upon the orthodoxy of each theory. The Council of Nice declared what was ecclesiastically orthodox; the socialist congress of Erfurt, in 1891, proclaimed the famous orthodox programme of socialism. The ancient Christians denounced the social structure of their day as imperfect, and declared that it would be destroyed by terrible cataclysms. The socialists of to-day affirm that there will be a bloody revolution, which will sweep away capitalistic institutions.

"In the gospel of to-day, it is said that the generation now living will see this catastrophe. So Engels predicted the violent triumph of socialism in 1898. When the generation which saw Jesus had passed away, the Christians were obliged to put off their predicted catastrophe to an undetermined future. In like manner, when the year 1898 passed in the greatest calm, the socialists were forced to modify their doctrines. Herr Bernstein began to oppose the catastrophe idea. He pointed out that the triumph of socialism would come about by gradual evolution."

BOTH PROMISE A PARADISE.

Both Christianity and socialism promise a paradise. Christianity had its martyrs, so has socialism of to-day.

"It is due to the refinement of customs that the sufferings of the socialists are, happily, less cruel than those of the early Christians. But there are, nevertheless, many of them. Socialists are only condemned to forced labor, to imprisonment, and to fine. . . . Christians and socialists are punished for the same reasons,—for not having rendered homage to established authorities, and for proclaiming what they consider the truth. . . . The Romans told the early Christians they were persecuted, not because they believed in Jesus, but because, from the political point of

view, they were dangerous to the state and enemies of the human race. . . . The conservatives of to-day say to the socialists: If your theories should triumph, there would be no more of mine and thine. It would be the end of the world. . . . You are aiming to destroy modern civilization."

The philosophers and savants of antiquity had no trouble in disproving the logic of the Christian doctrine.

"It was illogical, puerile, contrary to science and progress. And yet, despite these criticisms, Christianity made rapid progress. It is exactly the same with modern socialism. Economists and sociologists have no difficulty in proving that its fundamental theories are without the support of logic, science, or good sense; but, despite these criticisms, modern socialism, like ancient Christianity, makes rapid progress."

A number of other striking analogies appear. Christianity was a bitter protest against the terrible flood of miseries of the time. It proclaimed the equality of the slave and the master; it abolished the distinction between the stranger and the compatriot; it was an ardent aspiration for justice in the state and among nations. So it is with modern socialism.

THE FUTURE OF SOCIALISM.

M. Noviców then proceeds to a consideration of what socialism would do for the world, pointing out that it aims at "the absolute equality of all civilized nations and . . . the happiness of the masses of the people: the scrupulous respect for the rights of collective humanity." Socialism, he says, and Christianity are, from certain points of view, the same doctrine presented under different aspects. But in order to triumph, socialism must throw off some false ideas. He declares that the Marxian theories must be greatly modified before they can be properly applied to-day.

"The great error of socialism consists in believing that the social question will be settled by the attainment of the final ends, when, in reality, it will be settled by the attainment of the ends near at hand. . . . The social question will not be settled by the suppression of capital,—an impossible thing,—but by the suppression of the proletariat. The socialism of the hour is in the period of its youth. It is capable of radical transformations. But it must renounce the error of collectivism. . . . If the aristocratic and bourgeois classes open their eyes to the needs of the time, socialism will triumph without its errors. But if these classes continue to remain as lamentably blind as they are in our day, an intervening collectivistic period is inevitable."

RELIGIOUS ASSOCIATIONS AND THE FRENCH GOVERNMENT.

IN most of the discussion of the French "Law of Associations" of 1901 it has been assumed that new congregations, on complying with certain conditions, might be "authorized," or, as we should say in this country, incorporated, for religious purposes, and at least permitted to exist, so long as no law was violated. It appears, however, from the statements of the Abbé Felix Klein in the *North American Review* for February, that even after having submitted to the proper authorities detailed accounts of their income and expenses, exact statements of the value of their property, and complete records of each of their members, it is by no means certain that authorization will be granted. According to the Abbé Klein, this is what happened to many of these congregations when the law began to be enforced:

"Called upon to solicit authorization, and to give to the civil authority a list of all their members and of all their property, they grew perplexed, and a scission took place among them. The greater part, yielding to the advice of the Pope, of the majority of the bishops, and of the most liberal laymen, consented to submit to the law, and to take all steps necessary for obtaining authorization. A small number of them, notably the Jesuits and the Assumptionists, and others like them, declared that the government had set a trap for them, and that they preferred to disband of their own will; this allowed them to disperse their members, close up their charities, and dispose of their possessions without rendering an account to hostile officials. Now, it is sad to admit it, events proved that these intransigent congregations were right. The others,—those who gave themselves over, tied hand and foot, to the justice of Parliament and government,—were refused the authorization they had been compelled to ask for.

AUTHORIZATION REFUSED.

"This is perhaps the most scandalous part of all the story. Because of an early irregularity, and one that called forth an unavailing protest from the author of the Waldeck-Rousseau law, the requests for authorization, which should have been submitted to both chambers, were submitted to only one; the government asked the Senate to authorize four or five unimportant congregations, and at the same time asked the Chamber of Deputies to refuse several hundred. But there is something else still more serious,—the requests should have been, according to all justice, examined one by one, and M. Combes did at first take this course; but, seeing that the Chamber wished

to get on faster, and preferred to reject the applications *en bloc*, M. Combes consented, and even asked for a vote of confidence on this point. The congregations were divided into three series,—teaching, preaching, and commercial. Each series was dispatched at a vote, without any examination of detail, and in such fashion that the names of the greater number of the congregations were not even mentioned in the debate. In the Chamber of Deputies, one of the former ministry, M. Leygues, who had been instrumental in getting the law passed, and in the Senate, the head of that same ministry, M. Waldeck-Rousseau himself, declared that the law would never have been enacted if it had been understood in this way."

In many cases, as the Abbé Klein shows, the congregations which submitted to the law are in a worse predicament than those which refused submission, and which have not been compelled to disclose their membership or their possessions.

IS THIS LIBERTY ?

"All this," says the Abbé Klein, "must appear very strange to the inhabitants of a free and modern country in whose constitution it is written: 'Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof.' In France, we have not yet acquired either the idea of real liberty or the truly modern spirit; we have not yet shaken off the last remaining habits of a tyrannical past.

"M. Combes and his friends, who imagine that they are the leaders of all progress, are committing again the errors of the Middle Ages. That which Philip II. did in Spain, in his making use of the Inquisition; that which Louis XIV. did in France, in revoking the Edict of Nantes and in driving out the Protestants; that which England did, in her treatment of the Pilgrim Fathers, the Anti-Clericals in France are doing to-day, in their hatred of the religious orders. They are placing these orders beyond the law; they are preventing members of these orders from living as they see fit to live, and from earning their daily bread; they are practically forcing these members to leave France, all solely because of their ideas and innermost convictions. It is the old crime of heresy reversed. Since 1789, the French state has professed no longer to recognize religious vows, either to protect or to attack them; and in this it does well. But how illogical it is, then, to deprive certain individuals of their civil rights, merely because they take vows which it does not recognize! How does it concern the state if young men and women take the vow of chastity before God, and

lead a life in common, devoting themselves to doing good in the manner they deem best? Is it not monstrous that, in the beginning of the twentieth century, the government of a great country should arrogate to itself the right of interfering in a matter of this kind, even that it should bring such subjects into the scope of its deliberations? Whether this vow be good or bad, is a question for one's own conscience. Let those who think it bad endeavor to turn others from it by means of persuasion; but to try to prevent it by brute force is the most retrograde course in the world.

"The measure of true civilization is indicated by the degree of respect in which one person holds the rights of another; every man and woman, so long as not encroaching on the rights of others, is inviolably entitled to act, and, *a fortiori*, to think, to believe, to pray, as he or she wishes. The French Government, by preventing certain categories of citizens from assembling together, or from acting together, solely because their ideas are not its ideas, has gone backward several centuries on a capital point, and has resurrected one of the most shameful practices of the past, the misdemeanor of opinion."

THE CATHOLIC CHURCH AND THE HIGHER CRITICISM.

THOUGHTFUL Catholics in Europe are disturbed over the attacks on the orthodox theory of the canonical Scriptures made by Rev. Abbé Alfred Loisy, a learned French Catholic clergyman and scholar, in his books "The Religion of Israel," "The Gospel and the Church," "Evangelical Studies," and "The Fourth Gospel." In these books, the abbé assails Harnack, the famous German theologian, who "reduced the essence of Christianity to the doctrine of the Fatherhood of God," and also attacks the conventional theory as to the origin of the Bible. This orthodox theory was laid down clearly in the famous encyclical, "Providentissimus Deus," issued by Pope Leo XIII. in 1893, as follows:

"All the books recognized by the Church as sacred and canonical were written in all their parts under the inspiration of the Holy Spirit. Far from admitting the existence of error, we declare that divine inspiration in itself necessarily excludes all error, since God, the Supreme Truth, is incapable of teaching error." . . .

M. Loisy's conclusions as to the Scriptures may be summarized as follows (we give the translation of the London *Quarterly Review*):

"1. The Pentateuch in its present form cannot possibly have been the work of Moses.

"2. The first chapters of Genesis do not contain the true and exact history of the origin of mankind.

"3. The books of the Old Testament and their various parts have not all the same historical character.

"4. All the historical books of the Scriptures, including those of the New Testament, were more freely written than is customary in modern historical works; a certain liberty of interpretation is the legitimate consequence of the freedom employed in their composition.

"5. The history of biblical religious doctrine shows that doctrine to have undergone real development in all its elements,—in the idea of God, in the idea of human destiny, and in the moral law.

"6. The teachings of the Bible in regard to natural science do not rise above the level of the notions prevalent in antiquity, and these notions have left their mark on biblical religious doctrine.

"7. The Church, with her dogmas, follows upon the Gospel of Jesus, but is not formally in the Gospel.

"8. Christ was not conscious that he was true God and consubstantial to God the Father.

"9. Christ did not personally teach the doctrine of the Atonement.

"10. The Catholic Church as an organized body had no place in the consciousness, or personal teaching, or design of Christ.

"11. Christ did not actually institute the Holy Communion as an ordinance of the new Law to be observed for all time.

"12. The Resurrection is not historically true."

These books have been condemned by the Congregation of the Inquisition, the formal ban being contained in a letter from Monsignor Merry del Val, the Papal secretary of state, to Archbishop Richard, of which the following, according to the *Osservatore Romano* (Rome), is the substance:

"The very grave errors which abound in these volumes concern, principally, the primitive revelation; the authenticity of the facts and teaching of the Gospels; the divinity and the knowledge (*sienza*) of Christ; the Resurrection; the divine institution of the Church; the sacraments. The Holy Father, deeply grieved and sadly preoccupied by the disastrous effects which are produced, and may in future be produced, by writings of such a character, resolved to submit them for examination to the Supreme Tribunal of the Holy Office. This tribunal, after mature reflection and prolonged study, has formally condemned the works of the Abbé Loisy,

in a decree of the 16th inst. [December, 1903], fully confirmed by the Holy Father at the audience of the following day. I am charged to transmit to your eminence an authentic copy of this document."

The *Quarterly Review* reviews the controversy at length, and says of his theories:

"According to Loisy's ideas, we have to do, in short, not with a stereotyped deposit given once for all, but with a living organism. The Gospel did not drop down from heaven ready-made; rather it was a seed, planted in a definite soil, expanding, propagating itself, assimilating here, rejecting there, acted upon by sun, wind, and rain as they went and came. This is the light in which M. Loisy regards the history of Christianity. That the Church is changed is true—in constitution, in teaching, in worship—but this does not touch her claims upon us."

Commenting upon the condemnation by the Vatican, the *Review* remarks: "The one grace, said Martineau, which the Roman Church seems never to reach is veracity. But, for a teacher, veracity is the essential grace,—the Church must reach it, or she must die. Viewed from this standpoint, Liberal Catholicism is a struggle for life or death."

The Demand for a Reformed Theology.

A writer in the *Contemporary Review* (London) who signs himself "Voces Catholicæ" declares that reform in the Roman Catholic Church is necessary, and that the condemnation of Professor Loisy's books on the ground that they abound in "very grave errors" leaves the question exactly where it was. Never since the day when Galileo's "grave heresy" shattered the whole system of medieval mythology, he continues, have Catholics had "a rounded system of world-philosophy, but only fragmentary sections which give no complete picture."

"The ascension of Jesus into heaven seemed especially assailed by the dangerous Copernican system. And in order to safeguard the truths which the 'damnable heresy' was attacking, Galileo was forced to recant. If Catholic theology, which is by no means identical with Catholicism, has survived that shock to its system, it will easily recover from the effects of Professor Loisy's modest statements, which in their broad outline are as firmly established as those of Galileo. If Galileo had proved frank and stubborn, and been duly burned at the stake, it is possible that Pope Pius X. might be reversing the verdict of the Inquisition to-day and proceeding to beatify him, as in the case of Jeanne d'Arc. This heroine was treated as a heretic by the

Grand Inquisitor of France. She was tried with all the usual ecclesiastical formalities and solemnities. A tribunal of sixteen competent theologians inquired carefully into her guilt, and found it established without doubt. The theological faculty of Paris, the canons of Rouen, the bishops of Lisieux, Avranches, and Coutances, the abbots of Fécamp, Jumièges, and Corneilles, and fifty doctors of theology over and above expressly, publicly, and emphatically concurred in the judgment. . . . The framework which supported the stake proclaimed in writing that she was a liar, a denier of God, a blasphemer, an evoker of the devil, an apostate, a heretic. Now, the condemnation of Professor Loisy's books is quite an informal affair as compared with that. Yet the Church has begun to declare the Maid of Orleans a saint. True, before her intercession can be invoked she must be proved to have wrought at least two miracles. This, however, will be easy enough to show, for, in the sentence of death pronounced against her, one of the most damning crimes laid to her charge was precisely that of working miracles, only the theologians of that age, whose claims to be considered experts in this matter were immeasurably superior to those of latter-day theologians to decide on the laws of historical criticism, found that she performed those prodigies through the instrumentality, not of God, but of Belial, Satan, and other evil spirits. Hence, all that will now be needed is to announce that theology, when surveying its own special preserves, mistook God for the devil. That being so, it is surely more likely to have erred in a region which lies wholly out of its purview, and to have taken the truths of Abbé Loisy's works for 'very grave errors.'"

All the questions raised by the works of the Abbé Loisy are dealt with in an article by Monsignor Mignot, Archbishop of Albi, which appears in the clerical review *Correspondant* (Paris), under the title "Criticism and Tradition." Beyond doubt, he avers, "certain ideas embodied in M. Loisy's books, detached from their context, isolated from the whole, taken in an absolute sense, independently of the very special and exclusive aim of the author, without the explanations they call for, were of a nature to scandalize, or at any rate to astonish, those who speak of the Bible without even having read it, whose knowledge of it is confined to the fragments of epistles and gospels contained in their prayer-books, to sadden and alarm instructed priests who do not see without fear the methods of the higher criticism applied to Holy Scripture." Against these "unaccustomed expressions, which, ill-understood, jarred singularly with the Chris-

tian language commonly received," it was necessary that the voice of the Church be raised in warning tones.

GEORGE GISSING, ONE OF "THE UNCLASSED" IN LITERATURE.

"ART nowadays must be the mouthpiece of misery, for misery is the keynote of modern life." The man who wrote that, and meant it, says Edwin Bjorkman, in a study of the late George Gissing's work (in *The Bookman*), could, of course, never be popular, hardly even with the critics. But, "if his view of life was somber and sober, there was much in his own existence to account for it. Of his life, misery was the keynote indeed."

The trials of Gissing's early life were, perhaps, exceptionally hard and numerous. "It cost him much suffering, not only to follow his art, but even to get his daily bread."

"He lived in cellars. He ate his meals in places that would have offered a way-wearied tramp chances for criticism. His breakfast consisted often of a slice of bread and a drink of water. Four-and-sixpence (\$1.12) a week paid for his lodging. A meal that cost more than a sixpence was a feast. The ordinary comforts of modern life were unattainable luxuries to him. Once, when a newly-posted notice in the lavatory of the

British Museum warned readers that 'the basins were to be used for casual ablutions only,' he was abashed and startled because of his own complete dependency on the facilities of the place. Through all the hard years he remained alone, foregathering with none of the Bohemian cloisters that abound in London, and having only one friend to converse with.

"And through all that misery and squalor and soul-breaking poverty he pursued the aim he had set for himself with indomitable, never-flinching persistency and courage, quaking at heart now and then, but never imagining himself for a moment a hero or a martyr."

These years probably laid the foundation of the dread disease, consumption, which took him off at the early age of forty-seven.

Gissing was never popular. He knew it, and accepted the fact without resentment. "Public

favor was not his object. At the very beginning of his career as writer, he set up for himself an artistic ideal and pronounced an artistic creed to which he remained faithful to the end. Neither ideal nor creed was of a kind tending to make him one of the public's pampered, much-advertised, and much-selling favorites. Both are found in 'The Unclassed.'

GISSING'S LITERARY AIM.

This book, Mr. Bjorkman believes, was the first one in which the true temper of Gissing's art found adequate expression. It is largely autobiographical. The central figure, Osmond Waymark, is Gissing himself. Waymark gave up teaching to follow a literary career, just as his creator had done. The character says:

"Let me get a little more experience, and I will write a book such as no one has yet ventured to write, at all events in England. Not *virginibus puerisque* will be my book, I assure you, but for men and women who like to look beneath the surface, and who understand that only as artistic material has human life any significance."

This promise Gissing carried out, writing not one, but many of the kind. He wrote "The Nether World," "New Grub Steet," "In the Year of Jubilee," "The Whirlpool," "Our Friend the Charlatan," and nearly a score more of novels and short stories.

"The works just named are those which, in my opinion, reach the high-water mark of his achievement. This means that they must be counted among the strongest pieces of imaginative writing contained in modern Anglo-American literature. But all his works, even those in which his genius seemed to flag and lose itself under the harassments of an adverse fate, display, although in less degree, the traits that place him so far beyond and above the common herd of caterers to the literary taste of the public. Sincerity of purpose, shrewdness of observation, depth of sympathy, and command of form are some of the qualities common to them all."

An alleged pessimist, love and art are the moving principles of life for Gissing, and only by their pursuit, he believes, does life get meaning. "The day will come, I think, and soon enough, when Gissing will be read and treasured according to his desert. In the meantime, the admirers of his art—a growing host—will have to bear in mind the manly words he used in 'The Private Papers' in reference to himself: 'The world has done me no injustice. Why should any man who writes, even if he write things immortal, nurse anger at the world's neglect? For the work of man's mind there is

one test, and one alone, the judgment of generations yet unborn. If you have written a great book, the world to come will know of it.'"

THE LETTERS OF SAINTE-BEUVE.

A NUMBER of the delicious hitherto unpublished letters of the French critic Sainte-Beuve are appearing in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* (Paris), preparatory to being issued in book form. The letters which the magazine prints are characterized by a sort of tender heartiness and grace of expression which are very winning. In those addressed to M. and Mme. Juste Olivier [Olivier was a Swiss poet who lived in Lausanne], these characteristics are especially evident. Here is a bit from one written January 6, 1839:

"I have received with great happiness your dear letter of New Year's Day, and I again saw myself among you. The day was made more beautiful for me than it is wont to be, and in the festive atmosphere which I carried with me to a few friends in Paris you entered for a great deal. From the very morning, I carried your graceful salutation in my heart. . . . The other day, at Marmier's [Marmier was a French novelist and traveler], we enjoyed a little punch. We missed the ladies, but, decidedly, in his garret room that would have been too compromising. So we did without them. We recited verses, brief and as sparkling as the punch which we drank in small mouthfuls. Brizeux [a French poet, 1803 to 1858] recited some lovely ones resembling fresh wild flowerets which an Arcadian chamois might have nibbled in the crevices of the rocks. He, in his quality of Greek by taste, entered into a violent passion against the north, and against the pines. A Russian there present—M. Turguenieff—answered him. We all pleaded for the north. All at once Marmier took down a volume from the bookcase and I read to Brizeux 'The Pine.' He declared himself disarmed. Such are our holidays. They resemble yours,—poetry, friendship, and remembrance of the absent ones."

The great critic was always in financial distress. In one of his letters she says: "My mind is barren of news and ideas, having spent days at proofs only. I hasten, you see, to complete those volumes which will give me money,—the sinews of everything, the key to the future. This future is spring in two months and I do not know what else which I dare not yet define."

He makes some quaint observations on enthusiastic woman students. Marmier, he tells us, delivered a series of lectures on literature and gave lessons at Rennes. "The ladies are

enamored of him. They have invaded the lecture-hall, to the great scandal of the university. Cousin has thundered against it at the council. At Rennes, they complained of one too assiduous lady, and since the departure of Marmier they have serenaded the beauty under her balcony. You see that the species is the same everywhere, and little matters the individual.—Theseus or Bacchus, but Ariadne always."

Gossipy comment on current events of a national scope take up a good space in these letters. Here is an example:

"To-morrow I read from 'Port-Royal' to M. de Chateaubriand and Mme. de Récamier. Ampère has read to us the other day a Frank-Gallo-Roman novel of the fifth century, a vignette appendix to his two volumes, very ingenious, and only lacking a luminous touch here and there to make it very good indeed. Marmier will return from Stockholm. I am becoming somewhat worldly,—in the evenings only, for I work faithfully during the day. I have visited Nodier and L'Arsenal, and seek by these dissipations of spirit to get the better of the present *ennui*, and the future, so full of doubt and obstacles. Everybody is so poor here that I have learned with a real satisfaction and a sentiment of condolence that our King Louis Philippe, despite his twelve millions with which we reproach him, has not enough to pay his tradespeople, and that he runs into debt daily. When everybody is so ill at ease, it all ends by consoling one. Philosophy often consists in being penetrated by the ills of others. It is the 'half-way' of charity."

THE TRUTH ABOUT AMERICAN READERS.

A WELL-KNOWN American publisher recently propounded the following questions: "Is the American nation steeped in an optimism which is reflected in its literature? Is its rejection of the pessimistic and decadent literature of Europe a sign of superior health, intelligence, and a brighter material outlook?"

Having "cheerfully answered these questions in the affirmative" (in the *Outlook*), he has exposed himself to an amiable attack by Gertrude Atherton, who differs with him in an article in the *Bookman*, of which the following is the substance:

"That, superficially, we are a race of optimists, no one will deny; but how near to our roots does this optimism extend, and is it reflected in our literature? In a vast and populous country, we have just one first-class humorous illustrated weekly, and I never look through a copy that I am not struck by the sadness or tragedy behind

most of the cartoons, and the apparent poverty of amusing material in the United States. The *nouveau riche* and the snob are its principal resource; the callow society youth, who could only inspire humor in a desperate humorist; the hurry and heartlessness of our great cities; the rapacity of politicians and monopolists. Almost never does one see a page inspired by a bubbling well of inherent fun, such as informs nearly every page of the *Fliegende Blätter*, for example. Indeed, since I have lived in southern Germany I have grown to question if we Americans are really humorists, or merely a race with a strong, youthful sense of the ridiculous—a vastly different thing from true humor. As for the severest second-class humorous weeklies, their butts are the Jew, the negro, the hayseed, and the politician.

NOT MUCH CHANCE FOR OPTIMISM.

"In our literature of the moment, even,—and excluding Mr. Howells, who is distinctly the most depressing author of his time,—I fail to find that note of redundant optimism. It is true that most American novels 'end well,' but that, I fancy, is due to artistic pride; the poorest writer can make his ending 'strong' if he invokes the aid of death or severed hearts. . . . The American writers who win their way are, with few exceptions, artistic. . . . One result of this is that some six or eight popular English writers I could mention have little or no circulation in the United States. They are more abundant in invention than the average American author, more successful in creating an illusion, more objective; but their loose and often offensive style, . . . their utter lack of native distinction, their platitudes and inartistic construction, disgust the fastidious and often finicky American. To succeed with the greater public indifferent to niceties, they would have to write on subjects popular with the American people, who either want to read about themselves or to be instructed in such of their history as puts them into a pleasing glow without taxing their understanding."

Those who think "see but little in our country to induce a reckless hilarity." The problems of labor, the Jew, the negro, the monopolist, money corruption, business rush, rotten politics,—these make it so that "the American novelist is, perforce, driven to psychology; or if he attempts romance, he does the best he can with an unprolific but mellow past. Psychologically, the United States is the most promising country in the world, but for that very reason it does not inform the heart with perfect joy, nor the roots of the national optimism with vitality."

In regard to the second point, that "the pes-

simistic and decadent literature of Europe has no vogue in the United States," Mrs. Atherton is inclined to attribute this, not to "a healthy, disdainful optimism," nor yet to "an ineradicable purity of mind," but to "a certain provincial lack of interest in 'the world,' in 'life.'"

HISTORICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF DECADENT LITERATURE.

"The so-called decadent literature of Europe which survives ephemeralism—the fate of most of it—has a certain historical significance, inasmuch as it reflects the tendency of a nation and the spiritual development, or disintegration, of a people. Therefore, no matter how disagreeable, it is worthy of study by those who have the intelligence to appreciate it.

"The novels of D'Annunzio are the most notable instance in point at the present moment. In spite of their poetry, their incomparable style, their penetrating psychology, the really great thoughts scattered through them, they are probably the most repulsive works of art ever achieved by the uncompromising realist; repulsive in their monotonous unmorality, in the mental, spiritual, and bodily disease of every character portrayed, in unrelieved pessimism, in their nauseous atmosphere of decay. But were they without the high qualities I have enumerated, still should they be read for a far more vital reason,—they are Italy. All the stories and novels on Italy, by authors foreign and native, do not in bulk express this dead country as does one chapter of any of the works of D'Annunzio. The vast horde of sightseers who go to Italy Baedeker in hand, who bore themselves in the picture galleries and try to feel romantic among the ancient smells of Venice, return home to swell and perpetuate the legend. But any person born with the faculty to see must recognize Italy for what she is—an old corpse. She reeks with rotteness, degradation, disease; she is a thing of the far past, gangrene, crying out for decent burial. And, consciously or not, this hideous fact is epitomized in the novels of D'Annunzio.

"In northern Germany, no doubt, the heavy pessimism, the gloomy spirit of discontent, is due to the crushing weight of the military, the censorship of the police, the barriers between conscience and speech, and the inexorable laws of caste; but is it the less worth reading because it expresses the genius of a people? In Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, the long night for so great a part of the year, and the impossibility of lifting one's roots from the hole where callous nature planted them, the barrenness, the meagerness, of mere existence, are sufficient rea-

sons for the spirit which produced 'Beyond Human Power' and any one of Ibsen's depressing but most truthful performances.

"Most so-called French literature is Parisian, and Paris is not France. Of Russian literature, almost all has been said. No one need be told the causes of decadence and pessimism in that criminal among nations. If the few authors of note it has produced could have risen above Russia, then they would have been great indeed; but because they could not, the greater the value of their work as historical documents, the more reason for us to read it."

SHAKESPEARE AND THE BEGINNINGS OF ENGLISH COLONIAL POLITICS.

IT was a German who delved into Shakespeare's theology. Germans later wrote exhaustively about his views on politics, jurisprudence, philosophy, and natural history. Scholars of other nationalities have treated him as a philologist and a medical student, as a landowner, as a hunter, and as a fisherman. And now it is again a German who comes to the front with a study of the "immortal William" as a prophet of England's greatness as a colonial empire. The student will be much surprised, says Alfred Zimmerman, writing in the *Deutsche Rundschau* (Berlin), at the impression made upon the poet and dramatist by the great expansion movement beginning in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. This writer claims that not only was Shakespeare alive to the spirit of colonial empire which was then in the air, but that he read and was influenced by every important book published on foreign lands and England's interest therein, and that he foresaw British world-dominance.

The writer's attention was brought to this subject by witnessing one of Beerbohm Tree's performances of "As You Like It." *Sir Toby*, in his reference to the "nettle of India," suggested to Mr. Zimmerman the study of Shakespeare's references to foreign lands. He finds that in the year when "Twelfth Night" was published the first large comprehensive map of India appeared, and also the at one time famous book of Jan Huigen van Linschoten, "Discours of Voyages into ye Easte & West Indies," published in London in 1598. These, he believes, influenced the impressionable mind of Shakespeare, because "all the world was then discovering new lands," and Linschoten's work made as great an impression in England as it had made in Holland. In both countries, it was the inspiring cause of increase in shipbuilding, and in the founding of colonies, and really brought

about the establishment of the Dutch and English East India companies. He quotes, further, Shakespeare's words, "you have more lines to your face than the new map of India," and it pleases him to speculate that the author of this book sent a copy fresh from the press to the poet.

THE EVIDENCE IN THE DRAMAS.

A rapid survey of English colonial ventures from the time of John Cabot to the enterprises of Drake, Raleigh, and Frobisher, brings Mr. Zimmerman to a consideration of still further detailed evidence in the dramas. He believes that he has evidence which will confirm T. D. Halliwell's discovery that Shakespeare wrote poems on the Spanish Armada. In "King John," we find these words:

"This England never did, nor never shall,
Lie at the proud foot of a conqueror,
But when it first did help to wound itself.
Now these her princes are come home again,
Come the three corners of the world in arms,
And we shall shock them."

Shakespeare repeats this sentiment again and again. Witness the words of the British queen in "Cymbeline" to the Roman ambassadors asking tribute:

"... Britain is
A world by itself; and will nothing pay
For wearing our own noses."

And the Queen continues:

"... Remember, sir, my liege,
The kings your ancestors, together with
The natural bravery of your isle. . . . A kind of conquest
Cæsar made here; but made not here his brag
Of 'Came' and 'saw' and 'overcame': with shame—
The first that ever touched him—he was carried
From off our coast, twice beaten."

John of Gaunt, in "King Richard the Second," in his sick ravings, depicts England's maritime supremacy.

"This happy breed of men, this little world,
This precious stone set in the silver sea,
Which serves it in the office of a wall,
Or as a moat defensive to a house,
Against the envy of less happier lands: . . .
England, bound in with the triumphant sea,
Whose rocky shore beats back the envious siege
Of watery Neptune, is now bound in with shame,
With inky blots and rotten parchment bonds:
That England, that was wont to conquer others,
Hath made a shameful conquest of itself."

Othello tells Desdemona that he has seen "what Raleigh's phantasy of the journey to Guiana brought him."

"Wherein I spake of most disastrous chances,
Of moving accidents by flood and field,
Of hairbreadth escapes! the imminent deadly breach,
Of being taken by the insolent foe
And sold to slavery, of my redemption thence

And portance in my travels' history:
Wherein of antres vast and deserts idle,
Rough quarries, rocks and hills whose heads touch
heaven,

It was my hint to speak,—such was the process:
And of the Cannibals that each other eat,
And Anthropophagi, and men whose heads
Do grow beneath their shoulders."

"Will your grace command me any service to the world's end?" asks Benedick of Don Pedro in "Much Ado About Nothing."

"I will go on the slightest errand now to the Antipodes that you can devise to send me on; I will fetch you a tooth-pick now from the furthest inn of Asia, bring you the length of Prester John's foot, fetch you a hair off the great Cham's beard, do you any embassy to the Pigmies, rather than hold three words' conference with this harpy. You have no employment for me?"

OTHER REFERENCES TO FOREIGN LANDS.

Mr. Zimmerman finds references to the metals of India in "Henry the Fifth," to the East and West Indies in "The Merry Wives of Windsor," to the Indian empire in "Macbeth," to battles with wild men in "The Tempest," to "the wild and barbarous Indians" in "Love's Labor's Lost," and to African dwarfs in "Much Ado About Nothing." He also finds frequent references to foreign animals, plants, and precious stones,—to potatoes, in "The Merry Wives of Windsor" and "Troilus;" to rubber trees, in "Othello;" to ebony, in "Love's Labor's Lost;" to chameleons, in "Hamlet;" to guinea-pigs, in "Othello;" to alligators, in "Romeo and Juliet;" to ostriches, in "Henry the Fourth," and occasional references to the elephant, the tiger, the lion, the rhinoceros, the donkey, the leopard, and the unicorn, with mention of many lands at the other end of the world,—Arabia, Persia, Ethiopia, Tripoli, Mexico, Libya, Mauretania, and Guiana. In "As You Like It," he makes Rosalind speak of "a discovery in the South Sea." In "The Tempest," Patagonia is mentioned.

The *Second Gentleman*, in "King Henry the Eighth," says of the Queen:

"Our king has all the Indies in his arms,
And more and richer, when he strains that lady."

"What statesman," asks Mr. Zimmerman, in conclusion, "can boast of having so accurately and graphically predicted the result of British colonization in the new world, and the rise of the American nation, as Shakespeare has when he makes Cranmer, in his speech to King Henry, say:

"Nor shall this peace sleep with her: but as when
The bird of wonder dies, the maiden phoenix,
Her ashes new-create another heir,
As great in admiration as herself;
So shall she leave her blessedness to one,

When heaven shall call her from this cloud of darkness,
 Who from the sacred ashes of her honour
 Shall star-like rise, as great in fame as she was,
 And so stand fix'd: peace, plenty, love, truth, terror,
 That were the servants to this chosen infant,
 Shall then be his, and like a vine grow to him:
 Wherever the bright sun of heaven shall shine,
 His honour and the greatness of his name
 Shall be, and make new nations."

NAPOLEON'S LAST NIECE.

A REMARKABLE woman, the last of the generation which called the great Napoleon "uncle," passed away with the death of Princess Mathilde Bonaparte. In the *Revue de Paris*, M. Lavissee has a reminiscent article on her life.

"Through her mother, Princess Mathilde was allied to the oldest monarchies in Europe, but she was far more proud of her relationship to the great Corsican than she was of the fact that she was niece to the Emperors of Russia and of Austria. From childhood she had a curious and adventurous career, and had she not unfortunately contracted an unhappy marriage in early youth with a great Russian noble, Prince Demidoff, there is no doubt that she would have become Empress of the French, for Napoleon III. had the greatest affection, as well as the greatest respect, for his brilliant cousin, who, by the way, was in her time one of the handsomest women in Europe.

"Alone among non-reigning princesses of the last century, Princess Mathilde might well pride herself on having made history. It was greatly owing to her efforts that Louis Napoleon became Emperor of the French, for she conciliated his enemies, and won to his side the leading literary men of the year 1850, and so she was certainly one of the principal architects of his fortunes.

"It is an open secret that Princess Mathilde always disapproved, and indeed did her best to prevent, the marriage of Napoleon III. and Mlle. Eugenie de Montijo. Once, however, the beautiful Spaniard had absolutely become Empress of the French, Princess Mathilde gave in with a good grace, and she remained loyal to the emperor and to his interests. The princess had the shrewdness and good sense to deprecate the Franco-Prussian War, and when, after the first reverses, Napoleon was a prisoner and Paris in a state of anarchy, she drove out of the city in an open carriage without showing the least sign of fear.

"During the last twenty-five years, Princess Mathilde has occupied a very unique position in Paris. No royal personage went through the capital without paying her his or her respects, one of her most welcome visitors being King

Edward VII. of England. It must be admitted that the princess had the old Bonapartist dislike for England, but she made an exception in favor of the then Prince of Wales. His photograph always stood on her writing-table. She was fond of talking of the great Napoleon and of her grandmother, and one day, when a lady was

THE LATE PRINCESS MATHILDE BONAPARTE.

lamenting before her the great Revolution, she observed quaintly, 'I cannot regret the old régime, for had it endured, I should probably now be selling oranges in the streets of Ajaccio.'

"Princess Mathilde, who had a large fortune, was generous and charitable. M. Lavissee declares that were her accounts for one year published, they would form her noblest monument; for she gave not only generously, but wisely, and she founded an orphanage for deformed children, for the support of which she has left a considerable sum of money. The bulk of her fortune goes to Prince Louis Napoleon, now a general in the Russian army."

Various Characteristics.

An article by "Ivanovich," in the *Contemporary Review*, gives a few sidelights on the personality of the princess which are interesting. The writer says:

"Mathilde had a vein of German sentiment, but not deep enough to sweeten love in a cottage. She preferred love in a palace, where she could dispense hospitality in a grand and gen-

erous way to distinguished, amiable, and cultivated men of name and fame. Her extreme sociability, her openness of hand and goodness of heart, would have made the pinch of poverty unendurable. Her father knew not how to clear off the load of debt that weighed upon him, and she needed all her firmness of character to relieve him by selling that relic of family greatness, the five-row pearl necklace which she inherited from her mother, and which she knew had not its match, perhaps, in the world. . . . Mathilde's wealth aided Louis Napoleon to accomplish his *coup d'état* scheme. If she had believed in the durability of the empire, she might have divorced Demidoff and made the emperor marry her against the will of the Clerical party, which had carried him on in his career of usurpation. She chaperoned Mlle. de Montijo when the latter went to stay, during her engagement, at the Elysée, but with no good grace, for she foresaw what would come of her reign and that of the long-suffering, undecided man whose brain lay wrapped in a fog. . . . I can imagine the Princess Mathilde in a regular position, acting a noble part, rising far above the most illustrious women of her caste, and leaving a great mark in French history. She had rare generosity, and a very fine mind, and her practical good sense gave a useful direction to her idealism. She liked to give a helping hand to struggling men of talent, and she overflowed with kindness to her servants, poor neighbors in the country, dogs, birds, and god-children. Her tastes seemed to be Italian with a German tincture. . . . She owed her head to the Bonapartes, and the emotional side of her nature and her extreme frankness to the Brunswicks. She might have achieved for the Second Empire what Caroline of Anspach accomplished for the Hanoverian dynasty with Sir Robert Walpole's help."

GEROME, ARTIST AND ACADEMICIAN.

MARVELOUS technique and draughtsmanship, and a wonderful "recreative imagination," are generally conceded to the late French painter, Jean Léon Gérôme, who died recently, in his eighty-first year. He is criticised, however, for clinging too tenaciously to academic ideals, "without adding any single new æsthetic idea or original impression." Camille Maclair has a character sketch of Gérôme in the *Revue Bleue* (Paris), in which he declares that by the painter's death the French academic school has lost a perfect representative. Referring to the journalistic verdict that Gérôme was "a character," M. Maclair observes: "He was indeed a character. He was all sorts of characters."

"I believe the man had one very great quality,—absolute honesty and scrupulous moral cleanliness. There was no compromise, no 'trading,' no 'Americanism,' about him. A brusque jingoism and an irritating 'Déroulédism,' yes—but he was upright and 'straight.' He was rich, and yet had known only the graces of a career in which his slender merits had piled up for him extraordinary success. For the times in which we live, it is a good sign—this undeniable aversion to commercialism in a matter purely artistic. It must be said that Gérôme was not a tradesman. . . . Yet he had the moral sense and the mentality of a captain of chasseurs in one of the plays of Augier. . . . Gérôme . . . never tried to please the public. He turned out his sketches with the spirit of a reformer who has determined to die of hunger rather than perjure himself. He was rich, but every act of his life showed that poverty would not have made him any the less resolute in his beliefs."

GÉRÔME'S PERSONALITY.

Of Gérôme's personal appearance and manners, this writer has very little favorable to say.

"He was a fine fellow, who, however, became a furious madman in the face of a work or an opinion which displeased him. The transgression of a classical rule literally gave him a brain-congestion. . . . He made any discussion of art impossible, by forgetting the most elementary forms of civility. . . . But he was never incensed by an attack on his own work. . . . He had, to sum up, all the inherent faults and prejudices of French sentimentalism."

Gérôme loved both painting and sculpture. He was a very hard worker, and for the love of the work.

"In work he found his real joy. . . . He possessed the spirit of a great artist, the faith that is able to move mountains. He really moved nothing, because Nature would not have it, and she wickedly amused herself by making this great faith and this lack of talent dwell together, just as she amuses herself in other cases by bestowing some of the gifts of genius on a very ordinary person. . . . Yet he was not ridiculous, for no conviction is ever ridiculous."

The painter "had the good sense to limit himself to small canvases."

HOW MANY OF HIS PAINTINGS WILL LIVE?

"His attempts at great canvases, of which there is really nothing to say ('The Augustan Era,' 'The Birth of Christ'), will not live. It is vignettes, and more vignettes, and always that deadly insignificance of a technique that has in it nothing bad, nothing striking; no revolt,

no enthusiasm; always that indefinable impression of a colored engraving, always the little picture perfectly planned and worked out, the type of the medal of honor, regulated like a watch and adjusted like a game of patience. Forever that magic-lantern exhibition of subjects, . . . varied without once making us feel that a soul is crying to be made known to humanity. 'Bonaparte in Egypt,' 'Condé Returning to Versailles After Rocroy,' 'The Death of Cæsar,' 'The Martyrs,' are simply historical *résumés* which serve to illustrate scholastic volumes. In none of them does one feel a fine selection, a moral tendency, an instinct, a personal trait."

About 1872, Gérôme made up his mind to become a sculptor. "The work pleased him, and he was right to persist in it, for in this line he did his best things,—even if he also did his worst. His little bronzes are clever and curious. Unable to produce picturesque impressions by his canvases, this painter could do this by his statues. His 'Frederick II,' 'Tamerlane,' and especially 'Cæsar Crossing the Rubicon,' are creations of value."

RESCUING A WHOLE PEOPLE.

TO snatch a whole people from the pit of decadence, to raise its natural fertility, and to secure in the future the repopulation of its country, is the task of France in Madagascar, as M. Gheusi shows, in his interesting paper in the *Nouvelle Revue* (Paris), on the Assistance Publique in that island. The Malagasy are certainly worth saving, and especially the Hovas, the most intelligent race among them, who seemed in the early years of the nineteenth century to have in

store for them a civilization as rapid and brilliant as that of modern Japan.

The French annexation, whatever opinion may be entertained of the terrible military struggle which preceded it, has enormously benefited the island, if only because it enabled General Gallieni to organize a remarkable group of humanitarian institutions. Of these, the most important is the medical service. Smallpox, leprosy, tuberculosis, and marsh fever ravage the island to such an extent that the population of whole provinces has sometimes been literally wiped out in a few months. M. Gheusi does justice to the efforts of the medical missionaries in past times, notably to those of the London Missionary Society, which established forty years ago a hospital for natives at Antananarivo. M. Gheusi says that the colonial government still encourages the efforts of private benevolence, and gives grants proportioned to the results attained. But the magnitude of the evil demanded the creation of an official health department. This service trains midwives, in order to check the appalling infant mortality; disseminates information about the rearing of infants, the necessity for warm clothing in cold weather, and similar elementary facts of hygiene, in addition to carrying on the general campaign against disease. It also trains sharp young natives to be doctors. It is amusing to note that General Gallieni put a tax on bachelors, relieved the fathers of five children from taxation, and started an annual children's *fête*, with presents for the mothers of the largest families.

Vaccination is administered wholesale, and, says M. Gheusi, with the best results. The Pasteur Institute at Antananarivo issues enough lymph for thirty thousand people every month.

Hydrophobia, too, which is terribly common, is combated by the issue of suitable serums. With regard to leprosy, the herculean task of completely isolating these poor creatures is being carried out, with the active assistance of the missionaries. The separation of the sexes among the lepers has not yet been attempted. General Gallieni aimed at the regulation of the drink traffic by several paternal ordinances, but the difficulty of the task may be estimated from M. Gheusi's story of a French official in the island who founded an anti-alcohol society, which still consists of only one member—its founder!

LOTI'S PERSIAN JOURNEY.

PIERRE LOTI has been called the French Stevenson. He has also been likened to Ruakin, and his latest book, which is now appearing serially in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* (Paris), under the title "Toward Ispahan," justifies these comparisons and shows his singularly original style in conveying the strange, shifting beauties of land and sea.

In Persia, the author of "An Island-Fisherman" has a country after his own heart. "Oh, come with me," he cries, "to Ispahan in the season when roses bloom. Side by side, we will make our way by slow stages, as in the Middle Ages. . . . Who will come with me and see, set in a somber oasis in the midst of fields of white poppies, and amid its gardens of pink roses, the ancient city of ruins and of mysteries? Where are its blue domes and blue enameled minarets? . . . Oh, come with me and see Ispahan, under the May sky; but, before doing so, be ready for long marches under a burning sun, be ready for cold and bitter winds, be ready also for journeys across those high and vast plateaus of Asia which were the cradle of humanity, but which have to-day become deserts. We shall pass by the ghosts of palaces against which the mouse-gray sand has drifted. There, once upon a time, dwelt the masters of the earth; and there, close to each ghostly mansion, have watched, for close on two thousand years, colossal creatures with great wings, whose bodies are those of bulls, whose faces are those of men, and whose crowns are those of kings. We shall pass through their shadows; but once we have gone by, the silence and the eternities will once more encompass them."

Very wonderful is Loti's account of the first night's march across the desert. "One o'clock, . . . two o'clock in the morning. As at sea, the night being fine, and the vessel gliding through the waves, here in the desert we lose all count of time. Now and again, minutes seem hours; at other moments,—happy moments these,—hours are as brief as minutes; and the desert, like the sea, shows no trace of where we have been, and of where we are going. . . . Three o'clock in the morning, on the gray plain suddenly appears a dark blotch, which gradually becomes larger, more defined. Here are the palm trees, the verdure of an oasis; our night is over, we have arrived at a village."

CHARMS OF THE PERSIAN WOMEN.

The first two installments of the story of the journey, as they appear in the *Deux Mondes*, describe his arrival and sojourn in Chiraz, where he was received with exquisite hospitality. He has this to say of the Persian women:

"The women glide and slip in and out like phantoms, completely covered from head to foot in their black veil cloak, their faces hidden by the white hanging with its two round holes for the eyes; but the little girls, before they have taken the veil, much painted with rouge and henna, are almost all of a most delicate beauty that literally smiles at you. They are all, however, poor, or seem to be, and go barefoot freely about the streets."

On Friday, which is the Mussulman Sabbath, the Persian women take their promenades.

"They all move about like ghosts. They set out very early in the morning to walk in the gardens under great walls through which the eyes of the stranger cannot penetrate; there they lift up their veils and their masks, and walk freely through the orange groves and the ways of cypress and roses. . . . They are of varying social conditions, these women who walk up and down collecting roses for business or pleasure, but the black veil, with its funereal aspect, is the same for all. When one gets near, he can see some slight differences, if he observes the hand, the arm, or the stockings, more or less fine in their quality. Here and there a fine and dignified lady in green silk stockings, her fingers loaded with rings, will pass, seated upon a white mule or donkey, which a servant leads by a bridle, and which is covered with trappings of gold."

AN ANCIENT MEXICAN CHURCH AND MONASTERY.

THREE-QUARTERS of an hour from the city of Mexico by electric car is the suburban town of San Angel, at the base of the foothills, now fast becoming a popular summer resort. The following brief description of the old church of Nuestra Señora del Carmen, the most interesting architectural feature of the place, is quoted from the January number of *Modern Mexico*:

"Its triple domes, with their tiles shining brightly in the sunlight, are the first objects that arrest the attention of strangers approaching the town. Its Carmelite bell-tower, or campanario, is distinctive, and the edifice is one of the handsomest ecclesiastical monuments in all Mexico. It was dedicated to the worship of God in 1617, or three years before the Pilgrim Fathers of New England landed on Plymouth Rock. The interior is handsomely decorated, and contains some notable paintings by the famous Mexican artist, Cabrera. Pious women have adorned the chapel of Our Lady, which is one of the features of this ancient church, and the magnificent Churrigueresque ornamentation

of the northern transept is a splendid specimen of this most distinctive Spanish mode of decoration. Beneath this transept rest in their eternal sleep forty-five American soldiers who were killed or died of disease during the war of the North American invasion, when the adjoining monastery of the Carmelite fathers was converted into a military hospital and barracks, the good fathers nursing the wounded Americans with such Christian devotion and good-will that when the

melite order, and at that time held to be the first architect of New Spain. That this reputation was well merited is shown by the beauty of his still existing work. The building was begun June 20, 1615, and was pushed with so much vigor that the church and convent were finished within two years. The building was dedicated to San Angelo Mártir, whence came the name of the little town that presently grew up around it. Later, in 1633, another rich patroness appearing, Doña Ana Aguilar y Niño, the dedication of the church was changed, at her request, to Santa Ana. The handsome chapel, dedicated to Jesus Nazareno, known as the Señor de Contreras, was built at the end of the last century by Fray Juan de Santa Maria. The church was thoroughly repaired in 1857. It is a large and handsome building, containing a number of images much revered."

Regarding the monastery itself, the belfry of which is shown in the accompanying illustration, Mr. Janvier writes:

"The monastery is a fascinating place, even in its ruin, for a considerable portion of it has been razed, and what remains is falling into decay. In its rear, sloping to the south and east, is a garden once kept trimly but now a wilderness of fruit trees and shrubs and flowers in which are old water-tanks and a great fish-pond from which the fish long since have vanished; and from the terrace overhanging the garden, just out from the refectory, one looks eastward over miles of orchards and gardens, dotted here and there with low, square houses, and here and there with little church-towers, and above all these the great tower of the church at Coyocan, to the far horizon where the snow-capped mountains rise against the blue sky. In the refectory there are remnants of some very tolerable frescoes, and in the cloister, just off the churchyard, are others still more ruinous. Among these latter, cleansed from the overlying whitewash by some loving hand, is a wonderfully fine head of Christ."

BELFRY OF OLD CARMELITE MONASTERY AT SAN ANGEL.

troops evacuated San Angel monks and soldiers fell on one another's necks and wept."

Mr. Thomas A. Janvier says of this church:

"In the year 1613, Don Felipe de Guzman, a pious *cacique* of Chimalistac, in fulfillment of his father's testament, gave up to the Carmelite order a *huerta* of considerable size. Here the Carmelites built a little hospice. Don Felipe de Guzman presently died, and a little later died also his widow, childless. By her will, the entire estate of which she died possessed passed to the Carmelite fathers; and by these it was devoted to the building of the existing monastery and church. The plans for these buildings were prepared by the celebrated architect, Fray Andrés de San Miguel, a lay brother of the Car-

THE IDEAL OF THE FUTURE SOCIETY.

THE ideal which will be the vitalizing force of the future will be an ideal of pure beauty. This is the thesis of a new and much-discussed book entitled "The *Æsthetic Ideal: A Study of the Philosophy of Beauty*," by Fr. Roussel-Despieres, a chapter of which is printed in a recent number of the *Grande Revue* (Paris), under the title of "An Essay on the *Æsthetic Morale*." M. Roussel-Despieres believes that "the true philosophy of beauty can supply us with a system which will be a complete and final solution of

our problems of psychology, morality, politics, education, and probably metaphysics." He believes, he says, that "a synthesis of the universal and the human is possible, and that it is really contained in the æsthetic principle, in the beautiful."

"By this principle we may read the riddle of the Past and answer the enigma of the Infinite. Man cannot live by bread alone; he is inspired and tormented by an ideal lofty and exacting. . . . Man is something more than a mere physical organism which eats, digests, enjoys itself, and sleeps. Man is an intellectual energy and a moral force. The human soul can never satisfy itself fully except in following a high ideal."

The main argument, which is worked out in the article in a most elaborate and closely woven style, may be condensed in the following quotations:

"From the *débris* of a thousand doctrines the future will select one doctrine, from the fragments of a thousand Utopias one law, one body, one spirit,—all a new organism. . . . I announce and affirm an æsthetic ideal which transforms life into a continued moral ascent, without limit, in a dream of beauty, in a voluntary expression of joy, in a complete flowering of personal liberty. . . . Look back over all the doctrines and the hopes which have survived or been cast aside along the blood-stained path of humanity's progress upward. You recognize but one thing, which, though never realized, has nevertheless been the highest ideal the human soul can ever know,—beauty. Examine the vast scroll of the intellectual, moral, physical, economic, and political history of all human races. You perceive but one universal principle persisting through all the metamorphoses and eternal contradictions, and bringing about the unity of that history, the tie which binds together the tertiary man and the Fuegian to the highly civilized modern,—the æsthetic principle, the love of the beautiful. Examine the human intelligence in its very construction and operation, and you perceive that it is an æsthetic organ or instrument, and that its unconscious logic is ever governed by the law of instinctive harmony, by an intuitive sense of the beautiful."

The æsthetic ideal, M. Roussel-Despieres would claim, has for its object the æsthetic life, and this life has two aspects, "the æsthetic pleasure, the refined joy which comes from the contemplation of the innumerable and ever-renewed beauties of nature and art, and the æsthetic morality,—that is to say, the never-ending refinement (embellishment) of the spirit, the universal harmony of the human consciousness realized in

their common aspirations toward the supreme forms of beauty."

There are three successive stages, we are told, in the æsthetic ascension of the human soul, each stage corresponding to certain human faculties,— "sensibility and admiration, to physical beauty; intelligence and desire, to intellectual beauty; passion and the will, to moral beauty." The writer elaborates his thesis, considering, in detail, how the æsthetic life would necessitate modifications of our present systems of religion, politics, education, philosophy, psychology, and morality.

"Of all the conceptions of the ideal, the æsthetic conception is the only one which can possibly become universal, because beauty is the fundamental and universal element of desire. No ideal is freer, no morality freer, and, in consequence, more fruitful than the æsthetic morality. It is never imperative. It creates the joy in and the love for beauty, and the aspiration toward it. If life itself is endowed with a sense, it is the æsthetic sense. For what profit is a life without beauty, without joy, without love? If the dream of the æsthetic life, if the ideal to which the yearnings of the heart aspire, are impossible chimeras, who can say whether life itself is really worth the living, and whether that fantasy of 'cosmic suicide' conjured up by Hartmann is not, after all, our most consoling hope?"

THIS IDEAL WILL MAKE MANKIND HAPPY.

One of the most important factors of the æsthetic ideal is happiness, according to this philosophy.

"It is a classic aphorism that happiness does not offer us an ideal or an object of ambition, that it is nothing more than the result of an equilibrium between external conditions of life and internal conditions of thought. We must maintain, by as much as in us lies, this equilibrium. Then we will have wisdom,—one may call this wisdom the art of being happy. I prefer to class happiness as one of the virtues. Happiness . . . is not, in reality, only selfish in its effects. In being happy for those who love us, we increase their happiness. Wisdom creates optimism, which is the art of adapting one's self to actual conditions of life, and, at the same time, a very effective method of bringing about better conditions. Happiness—or, rather, the habit of being happy—is one of the great factors of the æsthetic ideal."

Behold, he says, the final and supreme formula of æsthetic morality:

"It is great, it is beautiful, to brave misunderstanding and hatred in order to remain faithful

to a moral sentiment. Be good,—this is the fundamental virtue. Make yourself worthy of being loved,—this is far better than being loved. Make yourself worthy of being loved by the best, the finest, spirits,—herein you have the final, the supreme, formula of æsthetic morality."

FATE OF THE RED BLOOD CORPUSCLES.

AT the seventy-fifth annual convention of German naturalists and physicians, recently held in Cassel, Dr. Franz Weidenreich read a paper entitled "The Fate of the Red Blood Corpuscles in Normal Organisms." This paper is printed in a recent number of the *Anatomischer Anzeiger*. It presents new and interesting facts about the blood.

The corpuscle begins to be of use to the body when, technically speaking, it is dead. The elements that make up the cuticle stand in the same relation, first becoming useful as a protection when they are dry and dead; but they are thrown off, while the blood corpuscles are kept in the body, and, as the writer shows, every fragment is used after the corpuscle has fulfilled its primary purpose of carrying oxygen to the remotest ramifications of the blood-vessels.

At the beginning of existence, the red blood corpuscle has a nucleus, can move independently, and can form new corpuscles by dividing. In some animals, the nucleus is retained, but in man it is lost, and when the corpuscle begins its work of carrying oxygen it has become nothing more than a microscopic mass of albuminous material inclosed in a sac-like membrane, and has lost its power to move or divide, and most of its power to receive nutrition.

WONDERFUL PROPERTIES OF CORPUSCLES.

Corpuscles can be made to shrink, or to swell and burst their inclosing membrane, according to the density of the fluid in which they are placed; for by osmotic force, when liquids of different density are separated by a membrane, liquid will pass through the membrane until the pressure becomes the same on both sides of it. Dr. Weidenreich considered that these changes of the corpuscle in form were due entirely to osmosis, and that the form of the corpuscle depended upon the density of the surrounding medium, until he found there were bell-shaped corpuscles in the blood-vessels of living mammals, and further experiment showed that red corpuscles retain their bi-concave form in a weak solution of salt that is of less density than normal blood-serum, which would seem to indicate that the concentration of the liquid in which they float is not the only condition that

affects them, and that change of form is not entirely due to osmosis.

There was positive evidence as to how the red corpuscles are finally disposed of, for it is apparent, from the nature of things, that such bodies cannot last long, and must constantly be worn out and replaced by others. They really break up into small particles which retain the same affinities for certain dyes that are shown by the corpuscles, and most of these fragments are taken up by motile white corpuscles which show the same color reactions.

The presence of these devouring cells varies greatly in different individuals, but they are always found in those organs in which most of the life-history of the blood-cells is played,—that is, in the marrow of the bones, the spleen, and the lymph glands, where there always appears to be great destruction of the red corpuscles and equally rapid appropriation of them by the leucocytes. Here they are also taken up by other cells with more of a connective-tissue character, which collect the particles into large masses that are afterward dissolved or broken up again.

DISINTEGRATION AND ASSIMILATION.

There is no doubt that a similar disintegration of red corpuscles occurs outside of these special centers of activity in the blood as it circulates through the body, and that the *débris* is carried along into the meshwork of these same organs, especially the spleen, where they are taken up by the leucocytes.

But this power of taking up the fragments of the red corpuscles is by no means limited to the leucocytes. It appears to be an even more pronounced characteristic of certain connective-tissue cells, and of cells in the lining of the wall of the blood-vessels themselves in certain organs, especially in the lobes of the liver.

These cells are not identical with the ones that form the inner lining of the blood-vessels. They have a relatively large mass of protoplasm, and are placed in such a way that they lie slightly above the level of the other cells, where they can stretch their protoplasmic filaments, like fingers, into the blood-current, to fish out the red corpuscles. Enormous numbers are taken out in this way and devoured by the cells, the membrane of the corpuscle being the last part digested. The writer believes that corpuscles fished out from the blood in this way are worked over into material for the bile, but he cannot tell how this is done.

Parts of a red corpuscle may be thrown off without causing the destruction of the whole body of the cell. This occurs especially when the blood is exposed to higher temperatures,

when certain poisons are introduced, or under certain physiological conditions. There seems to be no real objection to the idea that fragments of the corpuscles are carried along as so-called blood-plates, of which the writer distinguishes two kinds,—rounded, non-motile ones which are fragments of red corpuscles, and larger, irregular, motile ones from degenerated white corpuscles.

This disintegration probably goes on all over the body, but all the particles are strained out of the blood by special cells in the liver and other organs, and are used again in the formation of the bile, and for new blood-cells.

CAN A LOVER OF HUMANITY BE A REAL PATRIOT?

A RATHER interesting symposium of opinions, in answer to the question "Is patriotism compatible with the love of humanity?" appears in *La Revue* (Paris). The names of a number of well-known philosophers, moralists, savants, historians, and poets appear, most of them contending that a true patriot can also be a true lover of humanity in the large. Count d'Haussonville, president of the Society for the Protection of the French Inhabitants of Alsace-Lorraine, fears that his reply is very brief and brutal. "If it is necessary to choose (and that does not seem to me really necessary) between patriotism and humanitarian sentiments, my choice is made: I vote for patriotism." M. Izoulet, author of the book "The Modern City," quotes as his answer two sentences from the writings of President Roosevelt: (1) "The man who loves other countries as warmly as his own is altogether as obnoxious a member of society as he who loves other women as much as his wife;" and (2) "the exalted law of justice should prevail not only between man and man, but between nation and nation." Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu, popular author and writer on economics and politics, and author of "France, Russia, and Europe," believes that "the conception of a cosmopolitan society taking in all peoples without distinction of nationality is not only a chimera, it is a Utopia in the past, something like the old dream of a universal monarchy, which has caused so much blood to be spilled. Blot out separate nations and you mutilate and impoverish humanity. The problem is not to blot out the nations or to merge them into one. The problem is to bring them together, and, as much as may be possible, to group them in peaceful associations which shall gradually grow larger until they take in the whole world." Jules Claretie, author and journalist, who went through the Franco-Prussian War as a newspaper correspond-

ent, says: "Patriotism is assuredly compatible with love of all humanity, just as love for one's family may exist at the same time as affection for one's neighbor, or as paternal love is compatible with friendship." François Coppée, the well-known author, who also went through the war of 1870 as a newspaper correspondent, says:

"Excuse me if I say that, while the exalted idea of a general disarmament and a universal peace was quite fashionable in the last years of the second empire, the German invasion and the Commune rudely awakened us from that beautiful dream. For my part, I must decline to be deceived again. Forgive an old man for preferring his fatherland to other nations, without wishing them any evil, and ask, if you please, the first child you meet on the street whether it loves its own mother better than the mother of its playmate."

Paul Déroulède, the Nationalist, replies: "It is possible that all peoples are brothers, but my first brother and my nearest one is a Frenchman." Edouard Lockroy, ex-minister of marine, and one-time companion-in-arms of Garibaldi in Sicily, declares that all mankind are brethren only in theory. "In reality, they are separated by race, language, tradition, and their pasts. . . . The idea of a universal brotherhood is a Christian idea, and, like all Christian ideas, extremely difficult of realization. Beyond the geographical frontier are the moral and intellectual boundaries. When science shall have been able to sweep away all obstacles in the way of a union of mankind, the dictionaries will still remain. . . . When you take out the idea of fatherland from the head of mankind, you will have to find something else to put in its place." Sir Charles Dilke, author, Mr. Gladstone's under-secretary of state for foreign affairs, says that "an Englishman does not know how to write on an abstract question. We are absolute rebels when it comes to generalizations." Ernst Haeckel, the representative of Darwinianism in Germany, believes that the two sentiments can coexist. They are both natural and legitimate, he says. François Kossuth, son of the Hungarian leader, believes that patriotism is absolutely necessary for the development of humanity and the humanitarian ideal. Cesare Lombroso, the celebrated Italian criminologist, believes that "patriotism" has been responsible for all the bloody wars of history. Yet, he says, "properly conserved, it can be made to bring about the grandest results. . . . Before us, in the future, rises the great political organization, grounded in peace and universal happiness, working only for the highest good of the individual, and realizing the United States of Europe."

THE DREYFUS CASE AS IT STANDS TO-DAY.

THE announcement that the Dreyfus case is actually to be reopened, and that on the 25th of last month the new evidence was submitted to the Court of Cassation for preliminary consideration, lends special interest to the legal presentation of the case in its present status made by Richard Walden Hale, of the Boston bar, in the *Green Bag*. Mr. Hale says:

"In a general way, after the Rennes trial and the pardon of Dreyfus, in September, 1899, the Dreyfus party divided into two factions. On the one side were many who felt that they had been fighting for the great principle of justice to the individual, that the particular case had reached a point where it could no longer be used in the vindication of that principle, and that the sooner the heat and troubles caused by the incident should subside the better it would be for France and for all concerned. Others still thought the particular case of much importance, and continued to agitate. But they were little listened to, and the Dreyfus case, as a great public matter, soon became a thing of the past. The legitimate desire for vindication survived this oblivion, and Dreyfus and his immediate party have continued to seek a revision of the verdict. As I pointed out in the third edition of my little book 'The Dreyfus Story,' even after the disgraceful travesty of justice at the Rennes trial, 'one substantial credit to the French law still remains. If Dreyfus can get a proper "new fact," the French law, notwithstanding his pardon and his two convictions, still leaves a vindication open to him. Our American law does not do as well.' . . .

HOW THE CASE WAS REOPENED.

"Immediately after the interpellation of M. James, apropos of the Syveton election case, in the course of which the Socialist leader pointed out that there were irregularities in the Rennes trial, General André devoted himself to a personal investigation, which made it clear to him that out of the one hundred and seventy-two documents in the secret *dossier* there were at least two forgeries. That point once established, the minister of war turned over the *dossier* of the Dreyfus case to the chancellor, M. Vallé, and the latter immediately passed it on to the president of the commission in the Department of Justice which has the duty of pronouncing upon the receivability of demands for revision. Whatever they may say or do, this action means the certain revision of the Dreyfus case, for, granting even that the revision commission should express the opinion that the demand of M. Alfred Dreyfus for revision is not receivable (which is impossi-

ble, considering that new facts have been brought out), the chancellor will go over their heads, as he has the right to do, and get the Court of Cassation to take jurisdiction in the matter.

"This court can send the affair again to another court-martial, or it can simply quash the decree of the Rennes court without further proceedings.

"One must, indeed, thank that generous France, where justice does triumph in the end, for the good lesson she is teaching the world."

"The commission within the Department of Justice above referred to has rendered a report favorable to revision, and the minister of justice (or chancellor) has passed favorably upon it, so that revision proceedings in the Court of Cassation are assured. This does not involve any judicial decision whatsoever in favor of Dreyfus. It is merely a decision by the minister of justice to file a suit for revision. . . .

LEGAL GROUND FOR REVISION.

"Only one of the four grounds for revision known to the French law can now prove useful to Dreyfus. This is the fourth in number, and is expressed in the revision law as 'the existence of the new fact, or new documents, unknown at the time of the first trial, tending to establish the innocence of the condemned person.' But this is obviously broad enough to cover almost any claim that better justice is possible in the light of subsequent experience. If it were subject to no restriction, almost any case could be retried at any time. Accordingly, in this fourth case there is a vital qualification. Only the minister of justice can file a suit for revision on this ground. Obviously, then, this result is important and favorable to Dreyfus. But there has as yet been no trial of the real issue. It has only been framed for trial.

"As I understand it, the serious new fact is this: Among the documents in the secret *dossier* was a dispatch from one *attaché* of a foreign legation, or military spy (Schwartzkoppen), to another gentleman in the same business (Pannizardi). In it he said that he expected to have secret information about a certain department at a certain time. Colonel Henry, of the secret service office, cut off the date and wrote a false one in blue pencil. The false date corresponded with the time when Dreyfus was having a temporary detail to that department to familiarize him with its work. A peculiar French idea of justice allowed the conclusion that this dispatch helped to prove that Dreyfus was a traitor. A slightly more enlightened French justice now proposes to give a new trial, on the ground that the forgery is a new fact, unknown at the time of the first trial."

RACE FACTORS IN LABOR UNIONS.

“FOR half a century, about one-seventh of our total population has been regularly constituted of persons born outside the United States; and for twenty-five years, at least one-third of our people have not enjoyed the inestimable privilege of American-born parentage,—that is to say, with both parents native-born.” With this statement, William Z. Ripley (professor of economics in Harvard University and author of “The Races of Europe”) begins a consideration of the racial composition of our labor forces. The reservoir of our industrial population, he declares (in the *Atlantic Monthly*), is supplied from the bottom rather than the top.

“In 1900, there were a million and a quarter white persons in the United States who could not speak English, this being about one-eighth of our foreign-born population over ten years of age. Even when by the use of interpreters—and the United Mine Workers sometimes have to use three or four different ones in their general meetings—these foreigners can be made to understand what is up, consider how various are their social standards and customs. What is mere bread and meat to a Swede may be cake or taboo to a Russian Jew, according to the dictum of his rabbi. A subsistence minimum to a German is luxury to a Pole. . . . Even the lowly have their different social standards. The Jew will not permit his wife to work in a factory, and insists upon sending his children to school; while the Italian is the hardest of taskmasters to his own family. The Polish factory hands are predominantly women and young girls. The Bohemian will not allow religious scruples to interfere with his livelihood, while the Jew must observe his religious holidays at any cost. The Finns and Syrians prefer to work, if at all, in bunches, under their customary clan rule. The individualistic Jew will throw up his job rather than work in a factory, subjected to its necessary and rigid discipline.”

IMMIGRANTS AND LABOR UNIONS.

The attitude toward labor organization differs widely among our foreign-born citizens.

“The English and Scotch take to team work like ducks to water. No sooner are they landed than their trade-union cards have given them a status among their fellows. This is partly due to natural aptitude, but more to long practice in the school of experience at home. The German workmen take their places in the trade to which they were born, and speedily comprehend the novel problems of the new residence. The Swedes are said to be hard to organize, but become excellent members when once initiated.

One branch of the clothing trade in Chicago, the ‘special order’ business, has been entirely remodeled under their control. These Swedes have, in fact, compelled the Jewish, Polish, and Italian home-finishers of clothing to come into an organization. The Bohemians also speedily become ardent unionists. They are reputed to be ‘good stickers’ in a strike, and are ready to support the organization through thick and thin by prompt payment of dues. In this respect, they contrast sharply with the Poles, who have well earned their racial opprobrium of strike-breakers. Excellent workmen, showing great endurance, and seemingly capable of great speed in piecework, in many parts of the country the Poles show an especial zeal for house-owning. They are industrious, but are hated by their neighbors in industrial districts because they seem to have little sense of working-class solidarity. . . . This peculiarity of the Poles has operated greatly to increase their representation in the clothing trades of our great cities. An agricultural, outdoor people, they would not seem otherwise to be well suited to this sedentary occupation; yet clothing contractors, discovering that the Poles will refuse to go out on strike with the Jews and Bohemians at the behest of the labor leaders, have encouraged the Polish shops as a consequence.” . . .

“The French-Canadians, who are flocking in increasing numbers into the industries of New England, show little liking or aptitude for trade-union organization and discipline. . . . These people are reported to be trustworthy members of working organizations. Only when the French-Canadians have been long enough in the cities to become thoroughly Americanized do they respond to the demands of the trade-union leaders.”

THE JEW IN INDUSTRY.

The position of the Jewish race in industry, says Dr. Ripley, is a peculiarly interesting one.

“Their activities are almost entirely confined, in this country, to a few trades, such as tailoring, cigar-making, and the like. This is not due to any previous industrial training, for scarcely more than 10 per cent. of the Jewish immigrants seem to have been tailors, for example, at home; while in New York, until recently, practically all of the clothing manufacture was in their hands. The race is, in fact, condemned to follow these sedentary trades because of its physical disabilities. By reason of their predominance in these few chosen occupations, the condition of trade-unionism therein plainly reflects certain racial peculiarities of the Jew. . . . The Jew will join a union only when there is a bargain directly in sight in the shape of material

advancement. . . . The Jewish unions have consequently in the past shown a rather abnormal fluctuation in their membership as compared with other organizations. . . . Nevertheless, the Jews are rapidly learning, under the leadership of peculiarly able men; and no more splendid service in uplifting the lot of the lowly can be found than that rendered by the warfare of the United Garment Workers of America against the sweat shops."

DOMINANCE OF THE IRISH.

The Irishman tends to monopolize the situation, "not alone in the distinctively Irish trades and States, but peculiarly in proportion as the rank and file in the organizations are composed of the inert, non-Teutonic, unpolitical peoples of the earth. He will hold his fair proportion of the offices in a company of Scotch, English, Swedes, or Germans; but his place is securely at the head of the line in a company comprising Bohemians, Slovaks, Huns, and Italians. The reasons are perfectly obvious,—a ready command of English makes the Irishman their natural spokesman; his native eloquence makes him a most effective organizer; his strong sense of personal fealty makes him peculiarly faithful to the organization. Add to these qualities tact, a generous good-nature, and aggressive fighting qualities, and a rare combination is the result."

THE NATIVE AMERICAN.

What is the attitude of the native American, or, as Dr. Ripley puts it, the "Americanized mind," toward labor organization? On this phase of the subject he has these comments:

"One would naturally expect the free-born, liberty-loving American to rebel against the so-called tyranny of an organization, especially when the policy of that organization is dictated by a foreign-born majority. . . . The only satisfactory answer as to the native American attitude is to be found in the recorded facts of industrial life. . . . The Minnesota Bureau of Labor made an especial attempt, some years ago, to discover whether the trade-unions in that State were controlled by the foreign-born, and also as to the attitude of the unions toward American boys seeking admission. Returns were received from 1,985 workmen. Of this number, 59 per cent. were born in the United States, and 41 per cent. were of foreign birth. In the general population of Minnesota, on the other hand, only 38 per cent. of the males of voting age were native-born. This was taken at the time to mean

that native-born workmen were one and a half times as frequent in the trade-unions as in the adult male population at large."

"Dr. Bushée, in his excellent monograph on 'Ethnic Factors of the Population of Boston,' observes that rural Americans, particularly those from northern New England, do not appear to favor the labor organizations. In 1899, in the mine districts of northern Illinois, there were as few as 11 per cent. of American-born miners, while in the southern part of the same State 80 per cent. of the miners were pure-blooded Americans. These latter were, in the main, farm laborers, who resorted to the mines as a source of ready cash. These Americans were often willing to work for less than half the price per ton paid in northern Illinois. . . . These American miners were persuaded to come into the organization by the foreign-born miners in the northern part of the State. . . . Organization aimed to benefit both parties, but the initiative came, surely, not from the American, but from the foreign-born."

EDUCATIVE INFLUENCE OF UNIONS.

The American unions are "a mighty factor in effecting the assimilation of our foreign-born population."

"Education can affect only the second generation. The churches, particularly the Catholic hierarchy, may do much. Protestants seem to have little influence in the industrial centers. On the other hand, the newspapers, at least such as the masses see and read, and the ballot, under present conditions in American cities, have no uplifting or educative power at all. The great source of intellectual inspiration to a large percentage of our inchoate Americans, in the industrial classes, remains in the trade-union. It is a vast power for good or evil, according as its affairs are administered. It cannot fail to teach the English language. That in itself is much. Its benefit system, as among the cigarmakers and printers, may inculcate thrift. Its journals, the best of them, give a general knowledge of trade conditions, impossible to the isolated workman. . . . Not the next gubernatorial or Presidential candidate; not the expansion of the currency, nor the reform of the general staff of the army; not free trade or protection, or anti-imperialism, is the real living thing of interest to the trade-union workman. His thoughts, interests, and hopes are centered in the politics of his organization. It is the forum and arena of his social and industrial world."

THE PERIODICALS REVIEWED.

THE CENTURY MAGAZINE.

THE frontispiece of the March *Century* is a striking reproduction in color of a drawing by George T. Tobin, from a photograph of Pope Pius X. when Patriarch of Venice. Some interesting anecdotes of the new Pope are contributed to this number by William J. D. Croke, who gleaned them last August while a guest of the Pope's sister, Signora Sarto Parolin. These stories tend to confirm the popular impression of the Pope as a man abounding in the most attractive forms of human sympathy.

The opening article of the number is a sketch of the Paris Bourse, by Cleveland Moffett. It may be news to some readers that the Bourse of Paris is essentially different from the stock exchanges of New York and London, in that it is virtually a government monopoly in the hands of seventy men who are appointed by the President of the republic and the minister of finance, and have an official status. A brief paper describing a visit to Bismarck of the late Henry Villard sustains the belief current in the last years of the great chancellor's lifetime that his compulsory abdication from power was neither forgotten nor forgiven in his old age. Dr. Arthur Judson Brown, who last month contributed an article to this REVIEW on China's railways, writes in this number of the *Century* on "Economic Changes in Asia." Dr. Brown finds that the transition period in Asia, while it must, from the nature of the case, be longer and involve a much greater population, is still in all essential particulars like the corresponding transition in Europe and America. Thus far, the opening of trade with the rest of the world has affected only a few of the inhabitants of Syria, China, and Japan. Most of the people are dazed by the change, and in many places they have manifested their unrest by outbreaks of violence.

Mr. Richard Walden Hale contributes a very interesting sketch of Mrs. Sarah J. Hale, the author of "Mary Had a Little Lamb," incidentally setting forth certain facts which seem to nullify the claims of the so-called "Tyler myth" regarding the authorship of this nursery rhyme. Mrs. Hale was born in 1788, was married in 1813, became a widow in 1822, and in 1828 came to Boston to earn her living as editor of the *Ladies' Magazine*. In 1830, she published the poem about Mary's lamb, with the words as we know them to-day, in three verses of eight lines each, in a little book of twenty-four pages entitled "Poems for Our Children."

In a paper on humanizing animals, Mr. John Burroughs continues his argument in contradiction of the widespread notion that animals consciously train and educate their young. The cases of the deer and the antelope cited by President Roosevelt in his letter printed in connection with this article in the February *Century* seem to Mr. Burroughs to show the communication of emotion only, not actual teaching.

Mr. Robert Bruce Grant gives a workingman's views on labor unions. While he admits that there is corruption and tyranny in unionism, he believes that there is more justice and reason. The hatred of "scabs" and capitalists he attributes to narrowness of pioneer fighters for a cause. Trouble-breeding walking dele-

gates are likened to unfit representatives in our political government. The refusal of many employers to recognize the officers of the union he characterizes as the shortest of shortsightedness.

HARPER'S MAGAZINE.

PROF. JOHN BASSETT MOORE writes in the March number of *Harper's* on the "Beginnings of American Diplomacy," sketching our international relations during the Revolutionary War, and concluding with an account of the peace negotiations and the signing of the treaty in 1783. Norman Duncan writes of the Labrador "Liveyere," the coast-dweller, so called because he says, "Oh az zur, I lives yere." There are less than four thousand of these poor folk who live in a place characterized by a learned writer of the past as one of the most uninviting spots on the face of the earth as a permanent abode of civilized man. Mr. Duncan is inclined to think that this is putting the matter too delicately. He says that there should be no qualification. The place is a brutal desolation. The "Liveyere" is a fisher and a trapper, not to be confounded with the Newfoundland fishermen who sail the Labrador seas in the fishing season, and who number, according to Mr. Duncan's estimate, twenty-five thousand hale men and boys, with many a wife and maid. The "Liveyere" catches cod in summer, while in winter he traps the fox, otter, mink, lynx, and martin, sometimes shooting a bear or wolf.

Dr. Henry C. McCook has an article on "Insect Commonwealths," especially those of ants and bees. Among the social insects which form these communities, no personal property is recognized. All things are in common. "Even the contents of one's own stomach are not held for private use, but are subject to public demand. The nectar sipped by the bees goes, by regurgitation, into the honeycomb." Dr. Charles A. Eastman, the well-known Sioux Indian, records his first impressions of civilization. Of his entrance at Dartmouth College, in the fall of 1883, after several years of association with college students at Knox College, Illinois, Dr. Eastman says: "I must confess that Western college life is quiet compared with that of the tumultuous East. It was here that I had most of my savage gentleness and native refinement knocked out of me. I do not complain, for I know that I gained more than their equivalent." Dr. Eastman was appointed football captain of his class, and in a college rush mistook the professor of philosophy for one of the sophomores. Mr. Charles Johnson Post describes the crossing of the South American desert, starting from Quilca, in Peru.

SCRIBNER'S MAGAZINE.

THE March number of *Scribner's* opens with one of Miss Agnes C. Laut's thrilling tales of northern exploration, "The Search for the Western Sea," recording the adventures of M. de la Vérendrye. Several of the illustrations accompanying this article are from modern photographs which accurately represent eighteenth-century conditions in the far Northwest. The

period of the adventures in question includes the years 1731-50. In relating the experiences of this typical fur-trapper, Miss Laut really tells the story of the North-western exploration and discovery in the old French and Indian days. Mr. James Huneker writes of Richard Strauss, the composer, whom he characterizes as the musical enchanter of his day. The famous enchanted Mesa of New Mexico is described by Benjamin Brooks.

In his installment of the history of the War of 1812 this month, Capt. A. T. Mahan describes the memorable engagement of the *Constitution* and the *Guerrière*. He also describes Hull's shameful defeat at Detroit, citing as mitigating circumstances the fact of Hull's advanced years, his long dissociation from military life, and the fact that, though a soldier on occasion, he probably never had the opportunity to form correct soldierly standards. Captain Mahan also gives Hull credit for the timely and capable presentation of the conditions of the field of operations which he submitted to the Government. Hull justly argued that had measures urged by him been taken, had he received the support due him, events need not have reached the crisis to which he proved unequal. Captain Mahan finds the true authors of the national disaster and its accompanying humiliation in the national administrations and legislatures of the preceding ten or twelve years.

MCLURE'S MAGAZINE.

IN the March number of *McClure's*, Mr. Samuel Hopkins Adams gives an impartial account of the proceedings in the several trials of Caleb Powers for the assassination of Governor Goebel in Kentucky. It is alleged that at the time of these trials the principal newspapers of the country were supplied with reports of the proceedings through local newspapers which were fully committed to the anti-Powers cause, and which, both by omission and by bias, presented a distorted view of the trials. The fact that the country at large thus received a strong impression of the defendant's guilt seems to the editor a sufficient reason for the presentation of the actual facts in the case by Mr. Adams.

President Henry S. Pritchett, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, gives his impressions while speeding at the rate of more than a hundred miles an hour on the famous German experimental electric road. Dr. Pritchett describes the sensation of traveling at these high speeds as about the same as that which a passenger on the Lake Shore gets when the train is running at seventy miles an hour. While standing just behind the motor wheel at the front of the car, Dr. Pritchett suddenly saw a curve come in sight. "Apparently the track ended, and the car seemed directed straight into the air at a speed sufficient to send it flying over into the German Ocean. As it glided smoothly around the curve, the sensation was something like that which one has in an express elevator in one of our American skyscrapers when he is dropped from the fifteenth floor and is not quite sure whether he will stop at the basement or go straight through to China." A double-track commercial line of railroad lies alongside of this experimental road, and the electric car was constantly passing trains going in the same direction, some of which were express trains making forty and fifty miles an hour. Dr. Pritchett says that the suddenness with which one passes a forty-mile-an-hour train when he is going from a hundred to a hundred and ten miles an

hour is something startling. In his first paper on "The Negro: The Southerner's Problem," contributed to this number of *McClure's* by Mr. Thomas Nelson Page, the conditions under slavery and the old relations between Southern whites and blacks are described. Mr. Page bears willing witness to the fidelity and praiseworthy conduct of the negroes during the Civil War.

THE COSMOPOLITAN.

WRITING in the March number of his magazine on "The Final Conquest of the Air," Mr. John Brisben Walker estimates that the 200-horse-power aerial machine, with a capacity for lifting eight thousand pounds—three thousand pounds' weight of machine and engine—would carry merchandise in excess of four thousand pounds, and will move it a thousand miles at a cost of 10½ cents per pound. As Mr. Walker remarks, an oil pipe-line could do no better. The only appreciable cause of delay would be extraordinary winds, and it is believed that by rising to the proper elevation even these might be avoided. As an estimate for passenger traffic, Mr. Walker offers the following: Distance covered, 1,000 miles; time to Chicago, 10 hours; net weight carried, 5,000 pounds of merchandise, or 33 passengers; fare from New York to Chicago, per passenger, \$1; for 33 passengers carried on trip, \$33. Total cost of operating machine from New York to Chicago, \$10; net profits for the day, \$23. In an article on "Socialism in Europe," Max Nordau affirms that people no longer believe in the gospel of Marx. "None of his prophecies have been fulfilled. The poor have not become poorer, but, on the contrary, better off. The terrible economic crises are not more frequent, but more seldom, than formerly. Their ravages are being more and more limited. Some men are now coming forward to say that the socialist's state of the future will arrive through slow and peaceful evolution." Mr. Robert N. Burnett contributes a brief character sketch of William Kissam Vanderbilt, Miss Clara Morris offers "Some Reminiscences of L. Q. C. Lamar," and Mr. George Wilkes writes on "Cryptography," while Mr. Cyrus Townsend Brady continues "The Dramatic History of South America."

MUNSEY'S MAGAZINE.

FIFTY years ago, in February, 1854, the Republican party was born. The semi-centennial is to be celebrated in several States this year, and Mr. Francis Curtis, author of "A History of the Republican Party," begins the campaign of magazine literature on the subject by an article in the March *Munsey's*, in which he traces the causes which led to the formation of the party and gives sympathetic sketches of some early Republican leaders. William Dinwiddie, governor of the province of Lepanto-Bontoc, in the Philippines, tells how the Filipinos are being taught American ways and the English language. It is a hard task the American schoolteachers have before them in the Philippines, but, in spite of all obstacles from nature and man, "these apostles of civilization have risen above them, and have won a success which is only short of the marvelous. School buildings have been coaxed from municipalities. Attendances, in many instances, have been built up by house-to-house canvassing on the part of the teacher, and in others by their kindly aid to sick

children, as well as by their solicitous interest in the welfare of the pupils' families. Best of all, in many cases the confidence of the *padre* has been fairly gained, by tact and diplomacy on the part of the teachers, so that the cleric, who is often a tremendous power in his town, has become an active spirit in the advancement of the public school." William S. Bridgman has an informing article on "Famous Editors," in England and America; J. Aubrey Tyson considers "The Making of Railroad Officials," and Stanley J. Weyman's new novel, "The Abbess of Vlaye," appears in its opening chapter.

LESLIE'S MONTHLY MAGAZINE.

WHAT the Canadians think of us, the people of the United States, is a subject which greatly interests Cy Warman. He informs us, in *Leslie's Monthly Magazine* for March, that Canada will never become a part of the United States. "Her people are not in sympathy with the republic. Her public men are constantly being shocked by what they call the depredations of the American Government. They express amazement at the 'audacity' of the Washington Government in the Panama incident. They look upon Uncle Sam as a Rough Rider, galloping and cutting out a province, roping it, throwing it, and branding it 'U. S.' without the consent of the calf, or of its mother who bawls at the bars, bristling with ten-inch guns—bellows and bawls piteously in her impotent rage. What distresses Canadian public men is the belief that this will always be so, that the Democrats would be as bad (Mr. Cleveland—Venezuela); in short, that the disease is national. 'Privately, personally the Yankees are the salt of the earth,' they tell you, 'but Uncle Sam is a road agent, swaggering up and down the country taking what he wants.'"

Canada, Mr. Warman believes, will, ere long, become an independent nation. He quotes the words of a prominent Canadian public man on this point.

"There is no room on this continent for a monarchical form of government, and, sooner or later, it will pass."

"What would you do?" I asked.

"I'd make it, to-morrow, a republic, like Switzerland, with no army but the mounted police, and no navy but the fishing fleet, having the passing applause and eternal friendship of eight-tenths of the people of the United States and the good will of the world."

There is an interesting character study of Senator Gorman by John F. Brownell, and an account of the progress of "Trades Unions in Petticoats," by Dorothy Richardson, in the same number.

OUTING.

A FINE swinging illustrated article on the Lewis and Clark expedition through our great West, by Agnes C. Laut, is the leading article in *Outing* for March. These first adventurers up the Missouri River returned, in September, 1805, to St. Louis, "from the discovery of a new world half as large as Europe, without losing a single man—except one, by natural causes." "Uncle Sam's Foresters," by Leon Vandervoort, is an illustrated account of the work being done by the national department of forestry; "Where Romance Lingers," by Leonidas Hubbard, Jr., is a study of the North Superior region; "The Athletic Japanese," by T. Philip

Terry, brings the magazine well into the popular "swim" at present, and Douglas Story's sketch, "On the Yellow Veldt of South Africa," is a fine bit of descriptive writing. Witness his start:

"The mornings are cold in South Africa—cold with the chill of iced champagne. One wakes with the impression of a summons. One is glad to be awake. The world is full of beautiful day-dawns. I have seen the sun rise north and south of the equator, in the eastern and in the western hemisphere. Nowhere have I known so inviting a daybreak as upon the veldt. It calls one to action with the smile of an assured obedience."

THE WORLD'S WORK.

THE predominant traits of Korean character, according to Robert E. Speer, writing in the *World's Work* for March, are: "First, indirectness, procrastination in coming at things; second, the desire for sons to perform the duties of filial worship; third, taking things easy, troubles and all; fourth, the sense of the ridiculous, the humorous; fifth, cheerfulness."

William Thorpe considers "The Control of the Approach to the Panama Canal," presenting a graphic comparison of the strategic positions of the great naval powers in the Caribbean; Herbert Lawrence Stone writes on "Ten Years' Advance in Railroadings;" John Callan O'Laughlin considers "American Industries Competing Against Themselves;" Ezra S. Brudno recounts the progress of the Russian Jew toward complete Americanization—"through the ghetto;" Edward Bok, editor of the *Ladies' Home Journal*, tells us "Why People Disbelieve the Newspapers," and M. G. Cunniff contributes the third article in his series on "The Post-Office and the People."

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.

AN article on the "Abuses of Public Advertising," by Charles Mulford Robinson, leads off in the *Atlantic Monthly* for March. Mr. Robinson is a member of the National Committee on Municipal Improvement of the Architectural League of America, and secretary of the American Park and Outdoor Art Association, and a recognized authority on civic art. In this article he considers billboards and the defacement of natural features of the landscape by undesirable advertising. There is, he says, no public demand that billboards be utterly suppressed—"only that they be regulated; and if we would regulate them, we must determine what of their developments might fairly be called abuses." Such abuses, he holds, are principally in height and location. The more far-seeing and better class of advertisers, he says in conclusion, "can gain their ends in other and unobjectionable ways." The advertiser can substitute a quality of attractiveness for mere bigness and multiplicity of announcements. "He has already learned that emphasis is gained, not only by screaming a word, but by pausing before and after its utterance. He is finding it more profitable to put his colors together harmoniously than to shock the eye. He has discovered that if he can entertain and amuse the public with jingles or clever names or well-drawn pictures, he makes more impression than by shouting. Thus, advertisements now render many a long ride less tedious than it used to be, and even win for the billboards some friends where before, because of the abuses, all must have been their enemies."

Dr. Ripley's article on "Race Factors in Labor Unions" is considered in our department of "Leading Articles." In a pleasant, reminiscent paper on "Prescott the Man," the editor says:

"For most of us, the historian has swallowed the man. We think of Prescott in his study, though for but few of us, even there, do his twenty pairs of old shoes piled on a step-ladder cause the face of Clio to relax; but we scarcely realize him at all in the nursery. That boon companion of children; that rich and spontaneous nature; that most charming of hosts and most welcome of guests; that devoted son, that fond father, that sportively benignant grandfather; that loyal friend, good citizen, helper of the poor; that man in whom gentleness dwelt with strength, and whom kindness clothed as with a garment,—very human, withal, and not exempt from laughable weaknesses and engagingly whimsical traits,—the winning personality has been too much lost in the stately historical writer."

There are also papers on "The Small Business as a School of Manhood," by Henry M. Stimson; "Books Unread," by Thomas Wentworth Higginson; "The Beggar's Pouch," by Agnes Repplier, and stories by Robert Herrick and Lafcadio Hearn. In "The Beggar's Pouch," Miss Repplier makes a plea for the beggar, particularly the Italian beggar. All art, she says, "all legend, all tradition, tell for the beggar. The splendid background against which he stands gives color and dignity to his part. We see him sheltered by St. Julian, . . . fed by St. Elizabeth, clothed by St. Martin, warmed by the fagots which St. Francesco Romano gathered for him in the wintry woods."

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

IN the February number of the *North American Review*, the Hon. Wayne MacVeagh sets forth the advantages of international arbitration as made feasible by the institution of the Hague tribunal. He shows that if the parties, with the consent of the judges they select, prefer to sit elsewhere, the tribunal need not sit at The Hague; that because of the great number of distinguished judges, it is easy for the nations in controversy to select such a number of impartial jurists as they may desire; that they may even secure judges familiar with the language which they prefer, to which all the proceedings may be confined; that they can specifically provide within what period the preliminary examinations and printed proofs are to be delivered and exchanged, and within what later period the counter-cases and additional printed proofs are also to be delivered and exchanged; and that the date of the hearings can be clearly designated, so that all the judges and counsel having been previously supplied with the documents in the case, there need be no great delay in proceeding with the oral arguments.

THE STORY OF THE MODERN TRUST.

Cerdic Saxon offers a contribution to the discussion of the trust problem in the form of a history of one of the huge industrial combinations supposed to have been formed a few years ago in this country. The experience of this particular trust, in the writer's opinion, typifies that of all similar corporations. At the opening of 1893, this trust controlled absolutely the business of the country in its own line, a surplus was in the treasury, and a very large profit was in the business. To-day,

the surplus is gone; in its place is a bonded indebtedness of some seventeen million dollars; it is perhaps doing about 60 per cent. of the business of the country in its line, and that at little or no profit. It now has about ten well-established competitors, each of the competing mills being headed by some of the ablest men in the industry, all of whom were formerly in the trust. Where the stock formerly sold at from 100 to 120 for the preferred, and at from 60 to 65 for the common, it is now quoted at one-half to one-third of those figures, with no purchasers. The writer's conclusion, from the survey of this one trust's experience, whether mythical or otherwise, is that "theoretically, a trust can become a monster of oppression; practically, trusts hurt only the confiding investing public. The average trust is as powerless for permanent harm as the bogymen of our childhood."

THE PRICE OF COTTON.

In the light of events that have taken place in the market since this number of the *North American Review* went to press, Mr. Daniel J. Sully's discussion of the question "Is the High Price of Cotton the Result of Manipulation?" has an ironical interest. Mr. Sully's contention is that the price of cotton, which was at its maximum at the time this article was written, is due altogether to natural and usual causes. Manipulation, he holds, could not possibly have taken the tremendous output of the South and maintained its price on an artificially high scale. He estimates that at least five hundred millions of dollars would have been required for such an undertaking if it had been put into operation at the time the price began to rise. Mr. Sully further maintains that as manipulation could not unduly raise the price of cotton, neither can manipulation lower it. Mr. Sully does not seem to attribute any special importance to the boll-weevil scare as an element in forcing up the price.

CANADA AND RECIPROCITY.

The Hon. John Charlton, M.P., of Canada, writes on the advantages that would fall to Canada from reciprocity with the United States in natural products. Compared with these advantages, in Mr. Charlton's opinion, the advantages offered by Mr. Chamberlain's proposals for moderate preference on half a dozen articles would be trivial indeed. According to the way he sums up the matter, the proposed British reciprocity is sentiment; American reciprocity in natural products would be business. If the United States removes the duty from any article in favor of Canada, and retains that duty against other countries, then Canada has the preference in the American markets. Under this view of the case, the American preference on wheat would be 25 cents; British, 6 cents; American preference on flour, 25 per cent.; British preference, 8 per cent.; American preference on eggs, cheese, and butter, an average of 25 per cent.; British preference, 5 per cent.

OUR POSTAL SERVICE.

Ex-Congressman E. F. Loud takes a conservative view of the proposed extension of the functions of our post-office department. In the matter of the parcels post, while he admits that the express business as now conducted by the corporations is profitable, Mr. Loud denies that there is any evidence whatever that the Government could make it pay expenses, charging the same rates. The Government, he holds, cannot do anything as cheap

as the individual. The system of government management is not founded on business principles. An instance in point is the failure of the Government to make the money-order business pay, while the express companies charge substantially the same rates and make money from the business. In regard to the postal telegraph, Mr. Loud's contention is that foreign rates are not cheap, and that there is a very large deficit, which must to a large extent be borne by people who seldom, if ever, use the service. The postal savings-bank is another form of business that Mr. Loud thinks should be left to private initiative, and this for the reason that "the Government is not constituted to manage a successful banking business."

THE PANAMA QUESTION.

"Historicus," who is described as an American jurist of great learning who has devoted many years to the study of constitutional and international law, writes on the so-called "fifty miles order" given by the Secretary of the Navy, on November 2, 1903, to the commander of the United States ship *Marblehead* to proceed with all possible dispatch to Panama, and to prevent the landing there of any armed force, either governmental or insurgent, with hostile intent, at any point within fifty miles of Panama. This writer's argument is that this order was illegal if tested by the thirty-fifth article of the New Granada treaty of 1846. He sustains this view by a critical historical inquiry, the outlines of which are given in his article. He shows that President Buchanan repeatedly urged Congress to enact a law authorizing the Executive to employ the naval force at his command for the purpose of protecting the lives and property of American citizens passing in transit across the Panama, Nicaragua, and Tehuantepec routes against sudden and lawless outbreaks and depredations, but that Congress steadily refused to make such an enactment.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Prof. Brander Matthews writes entertainingly on "The Art of the Stage Manager," Dr. Guido Blagi describes "Zanardelli's Services to Italy," and Mr. Churton Collins contributes a second installment of "Poetry and Poets of America," while Prof. Paul S. Reinsch writes on "Real Conditions in the Congo Free State." Elsewhere we have quoted from Prof. Simon Newcomb's article on "The Carnegie Institution," and from the Abbé Felix Klein's discussion of "Religious Associations and the French Government."

THE ARENA.

IN the February *Arena*, Mr. Eltwed Pomeroy, the well-known advocate of direct legislation, offers a rejoinder to some of the arguments that are frequently made against that scheme of political regeneration. To the prediction that the people when once intrusted with this power will make mistakes, Mr. Pomeroy opposes the experience of Switzerland, where for the last twenty years the legislators of the cantons of Berne and Zurich have passed an average of between four and five laws a year, as compared with the six hundred and eighty statutes and resolutions enacted last year by the Massachusetts Legislature. Mr. Pomeroy maintains that under direct legislation we should have, not only fewer laws, but simpler laws, and laws more easily enforced. As to the objection that people will not take an interest

in law-making, since they do not now vote on constitutional amendments submitted to them, Mr. Pomeroy claims that nine-tenths of the questions submitted to people are either matters they do not care about, or are so wordily and ambiguously drawn that they cannot understand them. In the State of Massachusetts, more people voted in 1903 on the question of license or no license than voted for governor. This is a question that the people are accustomed to have thoroughly discussed. It is hoped that direct legislation will bring about the separation of the discussion of measures from that of candidates for office. The question of proportional representation in Belgium, which is regarded as a somewhat complicated one, is discussed by Mr. Robert Tyson, who shows that in the practical workings the system is actually as simple as any other method of conducting elections. In the district of Brussels, nearly one hundred and seventy thousand voters cast their ballots before 1 o'clock in the afternoon. At 2 o'clock, the one hundred and seventy-seven scrutineers were in possession of the ballot papers, and everywhere the scrutiny was finished between 8 and 10 o'clock in the evening. The central office of the district met, in conformity with the law, the next day at midday to add up the votes of each list, establish the common divisor, and proclaim the names of those elected.

GUNTON'S MAGAZINE.

WRITING on "Asia in Transition," Mr. W. C. Jameson Reid declares that Russia's advance toward the Persian Gulf and India, on the one side, and toward Korea and China, on the other, is a distinct menace to the interests of the world. Mr. Reid believes that our government should enter into an agreement, even though tacitly expressed, with England and Japan—whose interests are nearly identical with our own—for the sake of safeguarding our commercial interests in Asia, and to keep open the door of trade in that part of the world. To the objection that we are not bound to help England pick her own chestnuts out of the fire, Mr. Reid replies that we are bound to do so if we wish to save our own supply. In his view, Russian dominance in China means the doom of American trade interests.

THE LATIN RACE AND THE ARBITRATION MOVEMENT.

An interesting article by Mr. Hayne Davis shows that the centers of the international arbitration movement are in the Latin area of the world,—in Argentina, in so far as limited to South America; in France, in so far as limited to Europe; in Spain, in so far as it is intercontinental. Curiously enough, while the credit of calling the Hague conference belongs, of course, to Russia, the honor of carrying out the principal result of that conference in the execution of general arbitration treaties belongs to the Latin peoples, and as this writer points out, to that branch of the Latin peoples not invited to the conference.

THE CONTEMPORARY REVIEW.

IN the February number of the *Contemporary*, Miss Victoria A. Buxton gives a vivid and amusing account of the life of the Konak, or governor's house, in Mesopotamia. The Russian novelist, Korolenko, turns his literary microscope on one episode in the massacre of Kishineff as it appeared to him on his visit to the scene of the massacre two months after it occurred.

He helps one, as it were, to see the murder of two or three Jews in a single house. The worst horrors reported are, however, carefully excluded from his narrative. "Voces Catholicæ" raises a protest against the inclusion in the "Index Expurgatorius" of five works by Professor Loisy, embodying some of the results of modern criticism with regard to the Old Testament and the Gospels. Count S. C. de Solassons supplies an interesting account of the modern German novel. In it he sees an intermediate and transitory epoch. He calls attention to a new movement, headed by Huch and Lienhard, which is fighting energetically against both naturalism and symbolism, against Nietzsche, Ibsen, and Tolstoy, and which is urging a return to personal and national individuality, wholesome thought, the healthy heart of Luther and Goethe, and to God. Ivanovich sketches the checkered career of Princess Mathilde, Napoleon's last niece.

THE FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW.

THE tone of the February *Fortnightly* is chiefly literary. It opens with an appeal, with eminent signatories, on what can be done to help the British stage. The two principal proposals put forward are those of the dramatic school and the subsidized theater. Mr. Alfred Wallace publishes a poem, not before printed, by Edgar Allan Poe. A fine appreciation of George Gissing comes from the pen of Arthur Waugh. William Watson deplors the state discouragement of literature. Stephen Gwynn tells how he transcribed an ancient Irish song at the dictation of an illiterate peasant. Francis Gribble portrays Eugene Sue as a teacher and politician by accident. He set out to improvise a *feuilleton*, and found that he had improvised a policy of social reform which he was expected to represent in Parliament. Mr. H. F. Hall gives excerpts dealing with English history from Napoleon's note-books, and recalls the fact that Napoleon, for the first twenty-five years of his life, was filled with a bitter hatred toward France for having conquered Corsica, and with admiration for England as the chosen land of liberty. Le Comte de Ségur, in sketching certain French novels of to-day, says that the problem novel or play is far and away the most popular.

Next to literature stands politics in its claim on space. Mr. Demetrius Boulger discusses the Thibetan expedition under "The Problem of High Asia." He argues for the appointment of a British agent at Lassa, the annexation of the Chumbi Valley, and the granting of trade facilities between India and Thibet. Mr. Sydney Brooks contributes an appreciation of President Roosevelt. He anticipates his nomination by the Republican convention as almost certain, but his election as more doubtful. His own impression is that not the most eligible Democratic candidate could snatch from Mr. Roosevelt the prize he has so splendidly earned.

THE QUARTERLY REVIEW.

THE current issue of the *Quarterly* is exceptionally brilliant,—brilliant and withal solid. The articles on "Matter and Electricity" and "Pools and Trusts" are for experts rather than for ordinary readers. Take, for instance, the following sentence from the essay on radium:

"The coagulative power of these electrolytes varies in a remarkable manner with the nature of the ions

contained in them, increasing in a geometrical progression with the chemical valency. This relation is readily explained by referring the coagulative action to the electric charges on the ions."

THE BRITISH ARMY—PAST AND FUTURE.

Colonel Lloyd, in a sketch of the history of the British army, recalls the fact that in the palmy days of great Elizabeth the British army was thus recruited:

"When service happeneth, we disburthen the prisons of thieves, we rob the taverns and alehouses of tosspots and ruffians, we scour both town and country of rogues and vagabonds. ('A Pathway to Military Practice,' 1587.)"

As to the future, Colonel Lloyd says:

"It has yet to be shown that the problem of national defense can be satisfactorily solved without some form of compulsory training. But the progress made is sufficient to justify some confidence that even under our present system we may yet have an efficient army, provided that the most able men are intrusted with the duty of supervision, that adequate attention be paid to intelligence and strategy, and that harmony and coöperation between the government and their military advisers be established on an effective and permanent basis."

THE ART OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

Mr. Laurence Binyon reviews Mr. McCall's book on this subject with discriminating appreciation and criticism. Speaking of the art of the last century in England and in France, Mr. Binyon says:

"In this country, there is no such free circulation of ideas as exist in France. Creative effort has been apt to be sporadic; genius has pursued its chosen tasks alone. In our art, there have been no real movements. But this lack of solidarity has had the advantage of keeping our artists free from the extremes to which a more self-conscious production is provoked. Nor has England been wanting in men of genius, in the last century, not unworthy of being matched with the great Frenchmen."

Mr. Binyon thinks that Mr. McCall has been singularly unjust in his treatment of Mr. Watts, whom he handles with a mixture of patronage and detraction.

THE EDINBURGH REVIEW.

THE most ominous paper in the current number of the *Edinburgh* is that on "The Boer in War and Peace." There are two papers on the tariff controversy, one discussing the economics of the question and reiterating that imperialism and efficiency alike are not merely compatible with free trade, but incompatible with any deviation from it. The other warmly indorses the Duke of Devonshire's attitude, and compares the stand he made against protection with the stand he made against home rule. A review of Mr. Morley's "Life of Gladstone" insists, with Mr. Walter Bagehot in 1880, that Mr. Gladstone is a problem. He remains a problem to Mr. Morley himself. The history of telephones in Great Britain is surveyed, and the government is urged to buy out the National Telephone Company. Happily, the contents are not all concerned with modern themes. Much light is shed on recent discoveries in the Forum at Rome. The rediscovery of St. Francis is illustrated by a survey of Franciscan literature. The career of the many-sided and impetuous Galileo is vividly sketched. Papers on Robert Herrick

and "Jacobite Song" supply a touch of *belles-lettres*; and a paper on modern geology is the one excursion in the severer realm of physical science.

THE NATIONAL REVIEW.

AN interesting article on Spain and Morocco, by his Excellency Senator Eugenio Monterio Rios, president of the Spanish Senate, is the leading article in the *National Review* for February. Señor Rios recounts the reasons why Spain should extend her sphere of influence over Morocco. A protectorate of that country

is necessary for the peace of the world, he says. He believes that Europe would consent to Spanish suzerainty over Morocco, but does not minify the ambitions of France in northern Africa. H. W. Wilson has an article on "A National Tariff for National Defense;" Maj. W. Evans-Gordon, a member of the British Royal Commission on Alien Immigration, discusses that subject at length; Arnold White considers "Gunnery and Parliament;" R. H. I. Palgrave writes on "Colonial Friends and Foreign Rivals," Maurice Low considers American affairs, and Austin Dobson has a literary study entitled "Evelyn's 'Grand Tour.'"

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

THE CANONIZATION OF JOAN OF ARC.

THE French national heroine Jeanne d'Arc, who led the armies of France to victory and was burned at the stake by her English captors, has finally received, at the hands of the Church, the crown of canonization. On January 6, the ceremony was solemnly carried through at the Vatican. The Rome correspondent of *L'Illustration* (Paris) describes the ceremony in detail, and refers in strong words to the two dramatic moments when the Bishop of Orleans begged the Pope's blessing for France, and when, in the peroration of his address, he prayed the Maid of Orleans to "soothe all hearts, as in olden time, and to unite all in an effort to drive the stranger from the land." These sentences, says the Paris weekly, were so significant, at the moment, of the strained relations between the republic and the Vatican that "they produced general emotion, and if the hands did not applaud, the eyes did." While the canonization was being decreed at Rome, a beautiful memorial church was being dedicated to the martyred saint at Domremy, her native town.

"THE AMERICAN CARRARA."

Die Woche (Berlin) for January 15 has a finely illustrated article on "The American Carrara," by F. E. Osthaus. It is a description of Senator Proctor's great Vermont marble quarry. While the Vermont marble cannot compare with the Greek variety, nor yet with the splendid product of Carrara, this writer declares that as the industry is still in its infancy, there is a good opportunity for it to take advantage of patriotic sentiment and capture the entire American market for all time to come.

OBSTACLES TO SOCIALISM IN SPAIN.

The Spanish writer on politics and economics, Señor Edmundo González-Blanco, contributes to the *Revista Contemporánea* (Madrid) a study of "Anarchism and Socialism." He has no new word on the subject, the article being an arraignment of the adherents of both ideas. In Spain, he declares, anarchists and socialists are the same individuals. The Spanish temperament, fiery and independent, does not permit of the discipline necessary to bring about such triumphs of collective socialism as has elected members of Parliament in Germany.

COURAGE OF PART OF THE RUSSIAN PRESS.

Despite the most unfavorable surroundings for their free development, the best Russian newspapers, declares A. Yerschoff, in *Obrazovanié* (Moscow), "proclaim,

courageously and without hesitation, the ideas of justice and defend the interests of the people." In the most troubled reactionary periods, their independent thought braved oppression and censure, and its expressions reached all hearts. Russian journalism rendered invaluable service during the troubled period 1861-66 in the reform which did away with serfdom.

A FRENCHMAN ON AMERICAN HOTELS.

A consideration of the world's great hotels, under the title "The Mechanism of Modern Life," is contributed to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* by the Viscount George d'Avenel. This writer outlines the development of the French hotel system from the earliest times. He has a good word to say for the Mills hotels in New York, which, he declares, have no analogy elsewhere; but he does not like the Waldorf-Astoria at all. It and its kind generally, he declares, are inexpressibly ugly. "They resemble the dominoes our children play with, set up on end." He does, however, thoroughly admire the business-like administration of the American hotel, and is especially fond of its elevator system.

THE LAND OF UNLIMITED OPPORTUNITY.

Apropos of the new book on America, by a German, "Das Land der Unbegrenzten Möglichkeiten" (The Land of Unlimited Opportunities), Hans Lindon has an article under the same title in *Nord und Süd* (Breslau) for January. American institutions have made possible the development of a society not paralleled anywhere else in the world. "In its industrial superiority, and in the facility with which it adapts itself to all the perfected results of art and of science it [this society] is wonderfully supple."

HAS THE USE OF SOAP MADE THE ENGLISH DEGENERATE?

The editor of *L'Illustration* (Paris) quotes an English journal (he does not give its name) as asserting that the English people have greatly deteriorated physically, and attributing this deterioration to the too frequent use of soap. "The English are too clean. The Creator gave us a natural oil to protect the skin and make it supple, and we pass our time removing this oil with soap. In consequence, we are more vulnerable to colds, to rheumatism, and to all sorts of diseases. Soap opens the pores of the skin, and disease enters with ease. Look at the Kaffirs. They begin to deteriorate only when they become civilized, when they are too clean." The French editor admits that it is possible to sustain injury by depriving one's skin of the natural oil which is its protection, but observes that the degeneration of the Kaf-

first is due, not to the English soap and cleanliness, but to English rum and brandy. If soap is really a factor in the physical deterioration of mankind, he concludes, this agent "exercises but feeble ravages, and in a very limited class."

THE FAR EAST ON HERBERT SPENCER.

All the leading Japanese journals comment on the death of Herbert Spencer, and "are unanimous in paying high tributes to one whom they style the greatest thinker of the nineteenth century, whose philosophy has worked a marvelous influence on the thought of this country." In these words, the *Heimin Shimbun* (Tokio), a weekly journal of socialistic propaganda, refers to the death of Spencer. It continues: "His works are largely translated into our language, and among the English-reading public in Japan his name takes the most prominent place. Not only his teachings, but his lofty character and faithful devotion to truth, as a result of which he disregarded all worldly honors and distinctions, are emphatically praised."

REVIVAL OF A FRENCH NATIONAL MUSIC.

A little over a year ago, there was started in Brussels a new style of opera by Vincent d'Indy which evoked much enthusiasm and some criticism. Albert de Souza, writing in the *Revue Universelle* (Paris), says of this project: "It is against all academic influence, against all false tradition,—a vigorous renaissance of French music. If it escapes the Italianism which thoroughly permeates the better works of Gounod, Saint-Saëns, and Massenet,—a remarkable thing,—it does not quite free itself from Wagnerism."

BRITISH IMPERIALISM THROUGH FRENCH EYES.

Several French writers, in the *Revue Bleue* (Paris), consider phases of British imperialism. Jacques Bardoux, in reviewing Sir Charles Dilke's "Problems of Greater Britain," Boutmy's "Political Sociology," and several magazine articles, declares that English imperialism lies deep down in the national character, although brought to the surface by several important world-events of recent occurrence. He says:

"For the former pacific imperialism, the colonial conceptions have substituted a new doctrine. Imperialism has inspired the proud dreams and loosed the ardent sentiments which sooner or later will set free the great forces of war. All peoples have, in their turn, crises of imagination and sense. From the days of royal jubilees and intercolonial conferences, the English nation has passed to its most dramatic moments. The intense emotions aroused have been too much opposed to the distinctive national English temperament not to react—when the tension has relaxed—in a way dangerous to their neighbors."

A consideration of a number of articles in French reviews on the British in India leads Marius Leblond to the conclusion that England's success as a colonizing nation is not rivaled by that of any other people. In one respect only does he believe the French superior as colonizers,—they respect the originality of the people who have submitted to them. In India, he thinks, England's supremacy is fated to come to an end, because there English society is merely a new caste superimposed upon the others.

THE FAR-EASTERN CRISIS FROM A SWISS POINT OF VIEW.

In his review of the state of the world during the first years of the new century, M. Ed. Tallichet, editor of

the *Bibliothèque Universelle et Revue Suisse* (Lausanne), considers the political and racial factors at odds in the Korean dispute. He declares that Russia owes her success with Asiatics to the fact that "her type of civilization is not greatly superior, and her institutions respond to the Asiatic spirit. . . . Therefore, Russia is a civilizing element of great value, more readily assimilating with Asiatic peoples than any other European conqueror." This editor pooch-pooches the idea of a "yellow peril." He says that, while this apprehension on the part of Russia may be sincere, it is in reality, and in effect, merely a justification for Muscovite conquests in China. He believes that Russia will certainly demand help from France in case of actual hostilities, but doubts the willingness of the republic to go to the aid of her ally, because "French interests are clearly on the other side,—the side of the 'open door.'" Therefore, he argues, "France will be polite, and express sincere regret, and perhaps offer to mediate, but will not take an active part, and will probably not lend any money." If Germany and England should become involved, M. Tallichet does not see how it would be possible for the United States to keep out of the struggle.

AMERICAN AND EUROPEAN TRADE WITH BRAZIL.

The monthly publication issued by the secretary of agriculture and industry of the state of Bahia, Brazil, which is entitled *Boletim* (the *Bulletin*), in its issue for October last, prints a table showing the exports from Bahia city during the month preceding, the figures being, it says, a good average for the year. This shows that the exports to New York were greater than those to any other one port, 1,420,625 being the figures given for the export trade to New York, which is measured in the units the kilo, the liter, the gram, and the pound, while the next largest figures are those of the exports to Hamburg, 1,078,625. The products shipped were principally sugar, coffee, cigars, diamonds, cognac, rice, manganeese, and rape-seed.

A UNIQUE AND SUCCESSFUL SPANISH SCHOOL.

An illustrated account of the School of Ave-Maria, supported and conducted by Dr. D. Andrés Manjón, the canon of Granada, appears in the popular illustrated review, *Hojas Selectas*, of Madrid. The children are taught all the branches by the most approved modern methods of the "object lesson." Physical geography is taught in the open air, the natural scenery of the mountain region, where the school is located, furnishing excellent subjects for demonstration. Astronomy is taught by a series of globes strung on wires to represent the planetary system. There are also classes in the military art, and sight-reading in music.

INDUSTRIAL CONDITIONS IN NAPLES AND SICILY.

Pasquale Villari, the Italian Senator, writes, in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), in a pessimistic vein on the industrial conditions of southern Italy. It is calculated that 90 per cent. of the population live in extreme poverty, and their condition grows ever worse. Among essential reforms, the Senator suggests improved industrial education, a reduction of the heavy town duties on all imported articles of food, and, above all, an energetic grappling with the problem of workmen's dwellings, which in Naples are a disgrace to any civilized city. The editor, Maggiorino Ferraris, urges the need for more concerted action with the object of attracting foreign tourists to the country. Already something has

been accomplished by the Hotel Keepers' Association, founded five years ago, and other kindred societies, but much more might be effected in the direction of improving train and boat services, of building clean and sanitary hotels, and, following the example of Switzerland, in systematically advertising the charms of the Peninsula in other countries. The author points out that many delightful health resorts in the Apennines and in Sicily are still wholly unknown to foreigners, and do not cater to tourists to any extent.

A FRENCH OPINION OF PANAMA.

The United States will hold the canal and keep it open to the traffic of the world infinitely better than could any Latin-American republic, observes François Maury, in the *Revue Universelle* (Paris). But, he continues, it will enable them "to dominate the Pacific, in which they already possess the Philippines and Hawaii, and to establish their economic supremacy over all Latin America." France took the initiative in two enterprises

of great world-interest and concern,—the piercing of the Isthmus of Suez and the piercing of the Isthmus of Panama. "She inaugurated them with perfect disinterestedness, for the welfare of all nations. At Panama, as at Suez, the Anglo-Saxons have taken her place, and for her generous, noble ambitions have substituted the aims of selfishness."

KOREAN-JAPANESE RELATIONS.

The editor of the *Korea Review*, a monthly published in Seoul, in English, believes that "Japan is the best, if not the only, friend Korea really has,"—meaning the only friend who will render any substantial aid. Though "there may have been things to criticise now and then in the working out of Japan's policy regarding Korea, there can be no doubt that Japan has always stood solidly for Korean independence. And we believe she always will, so far as such independence is compatible with fairly competent government in the peninsula."

SCIENCE IN FOREIGN PERIODICALS.

CAN THE FORCE OF SEA WAVES BE UTILIZED?

THIS question is asked by M. V. Martinet, in the *Revue Technique* (Paris), and a reluctant negative answer is given. Much has been written, declares M. Martinet, on this subject, and many experiments tried. The simplest method is that of using pontoons which transform the up-and-down motions of the waves, by means of turbines, into rotary movements. This writer, however, declares that the result does not pay for the great cost of the establishment of the apparatus. The force of the sea waves, he declares, must forever lack concentration. Without doubt, the force of the water is considerable; but the elevation is only moderate, and it requires a long time for this elevation.

THE USE OF HYDRAULIC POWER.

In the *Riforma Sociale* (Rome), Giuseppe Colombo, Senator, and director of the Royal Technical Institute of Milan, discusses the utilization of hydraulic power. He declares that this is one of the great forces of the future in its industrial applications, and outlines some of the investigations made by Italian scientists and mechanists in applying its use.

IS SALT EVER A POISON?

In *La Revue* for December, Dr. Romme declares that, under certain circumstances, salt is a poison. Too much, or the absence of it, he claims, may cause serious disease. In certain illnesses, absolute deprivation of salt has been known to effect a cure.

THE NOBEL PRIZES FOR PHYSICS AND CHEMISTRY.

The Royal Academy of Stockholm has distributed 100,000 crowns (\$28,000) in prizes offered by the late philanthropist, Nobel, for the year 1903, between three French scientists, M. and Mme. Curie and M. Henri Becquerel. The Curies, in collaboration, have made remarkable discoveries in the properties and uses of uranium, especially with regard to its properties of radio-activity. M. Becquerel, says the *Revue Universelle*, has investigated the Roentgen ray and greatly extended its field of usefulness in mechanical application. In 1896, M. Becquerel announced that uranium naturally

emitted radiations presenting similar properties to those of the X-rays.

TYPHOID BACILLI IN BUTTER.

A short article by Dr. Cartaz in *Nature* (Paris) points out the danger of typhoid infection from butter. Of course, it is now well known that typhoid has been frequently communicated in milk, either from washing the cans in infected water or because the milk has been diluted with water from a polluted source. Bruch has recently made a series of experiments which show, as might be expected, that when vessels are washed with polluted water and afterward used for milk the bacilli are found in the cream, and in the butter made from the cream. They remain alive in the butter for some thirty days.

TRANSPLANTING IN THE NIGHT.

In *Nature* (Paris) there is a practical article of general interest on transplanting plants in full foliage in the night. It is written by Professor Maumené, and gives the result of some experiments of M. Rouault. It is customary to transplant deciduous trees in the fall or winter. Rouault has found that trees may be transplanted in full foliage in May or June, with little or no injury, providing the process is carried on at night. This has been demonstrated to the entire satisfaction of some of the most prominent horticulturists of France.

A NEW SERUM FOR TUBERCULOSIS.

In the *Revue Universelle* there is a summary of a communication made by Dr. Marmorek, of the Pasteur Institute, to the Academy of Medicine in which he claims to have produced a tubercular serum which, when inoculated, will produce more or less complete immunity from the disease. This is entirely different from tuberculin, which he does not consider the product of the bacillus of Koch. He claims to have obtained a substance which will kill small animals, and from this he has obtained an antitoxin which will produce immunity in animals. Experiments with it have been carried on during the last year in the French hospitals with varying success. Apparently, it is in the cases in the

early stages that the success is most marked. No injurious effects have followed its use.

CONDITIONS OF THE DEEP SEA.

The leading article in the *Naturwissenschaftliche Wochenschrift* (Berlin) is by Dr. Paul Apitzsch, on the adaptation of the deep-sea fauna to the different conditions of the waters of the abyssal regions. It is illustrated by many pictures of the peculiar forms of deep-sea life, and its material is very largely drawn from the books of Chun and Seeliger. There is a clearly marked distinction between the fauna of the surface waters and that of the deep sea. The conditions which distinguish the deep sea are five,—(1) the great water pressure; (2) the low temperature; (3) the chemical condition of the water; (4) the lack of vegetation; (5) the lack of sunlight. The low bottom temperature permits of the existence of Arctic forms in the deep waters of the tropics. The deep water differs in chemical composition from that of the surface,—in a lack of oxygen, in a richness in carbonic acid, and in a lack of calcium. Because of this lack of calcium, the crustacea have soft shells and the fish cartilaginous skeletons. The lack of vegetation would seem to make impossible the existence of plant-eating animals, but these have the material that falls from the regions above. The lack of sunlight results either in the production of animals with no eyes or in the production of very prominent eyes.

In the latter case, the eyes are not for recognizing the sunlight, which never penetrates to those regions, but for recognizing the phosphorescence produced by the animals themselves. Red and black are the common colors of the deep-sea animals.

THE LATEST WORD AS TO VEGETARIANISM.

An absolutely vegetarian diet is not suited to the needs and interests of European races. This is the conclusion of a study of vegetarianism by Armand Gautier, which will appear in a book soon to be published, part of the first chapter of which is reproduced by the *Revue Scientifique* (Paris). M. Gautier says:

"The vegetarian diet is not suited to European organs. But relieved by the addition of milk, grain, butter, cheese, eggs, etc., it offers many advantages. It alkalizes the blood, it regulates the circulation, and preserves the elasticity of the arteries; . . . it makes one less liable to danger from maladies of the skin and of the joints, and to congestions of the internal organs. It tends to soften the disposition,—to make us more calm and less agitated, aggressive, and violent. It is practical and rational. It ought to be accepted, if one follows an ideal for the establishment of an education for races of men who are to be sweet-tempered, intelligent, artistic, peace-loving, yet nevertheless prolific, vigorous, and active."

Yet, this writer contends, an absolutely vegetarian diet is impossible for the white races, because the digestive tract of Europeans and Americans has long since been rendered unfit for such a diet.

NEW PROPERTIES OF RADIUM.

In a paper submitted to the French Biological Society (printed in the *Revue Scientifique*), M. Bohn considers the toxic action of radium. Certain experiments on ants convince him that there is a certain mysterious emanation from the rare metal which is really an agent of death. This emanation may be found close to old soil and in the air of cellars, and it is just possi-

ble that a plant which has grown in a cave is influenced as much by these emanations as it is by the darkness. Nature reports certain observations of M. W. Ackroyd as to the changes of color caused by radium. To observe these changes, insert a tube of bromide of radium into the substance whose color it is desired to change. After some hours, chloride of sodium takes on an orange tint, and chloride of potassium becomes violet, but rapidly resumes its own color after the radium is removed. Bicarbonate of soda and metabisulphite of potassium become of an amethyst color after an exposure of twenty-four hours.

ORANGES IN THE UNITED STATES AND IN JAFFA.

In *Nature* (Paris) there is an article under the above title which is interesting as being a recognition of the work done in America in the hybridizing and cultivating of oranges. The author calls attention to the fact that California oranges are now sold in London. He compares the work done in the United States with the lack of care shown in the cultivation of oranges in Jaffa. It takes five or six years of cultivation before the plants in Jaffa produce fruit, and during this time the Arab planters are very negligent in warding off plant diseases, and in protecting the plants from injurious insects. The result is that the California oranges are taking their place in the European markets. The author then gives a brief *résumé* of the American work in breeding, calling especial attention to the success in hybridizing two Japanese varieties with the orange, producing a desirable hybrid which can endure much colder weather than the orange, and hence can be cultivated more widely. The author describes briefly the American success in utilizing fertilizers for orange-cultivation.

RESTORATION OF ARCHEOLOGICAL FINDS.

In *Naturwissenschaftliche Wochenschrift*, Richard Loeb treats of the methods of restoring and preserving archeological material. His treatment is interesting, for it shows how archeologists are dependent, to some extent, on chemists for their success. Archeological material as it is dug up is frequently covered with a more or less thick incrustation, which conceals the finer details of structure. This incrustation, in the case of bronzes, consists of the oxides of copper. In other cases, it may be a deposit of calcium carbonate. It seems that Dr. Rathgen, of the Royal Museum in Berlin, and Professor Rhousopoulos, of the Royal Museum at Athens, have given especial attention to this subject. It is necessary, evidently, to use some solvent that will remove the incrustation but will not injure the underlying material. In some cases, hot water will remove a part of it; in others, various acids are used, combined with methods of use familiar in chemical work. Both Dr. Rathgen and Professor Rhousopoulos have been very successful. The article describes the processes applied to the cleansing of silver coins and to the restoring of statuary, and also the means used for preserving the materials after cleansing.

MALARIA IN ASIA AND IN EAST AFRICA.

In *Zeitschrift für Hygiene und Infektionskrankheiten* are two valuable articles on malaria. The first, entitled "Malaria in Turkestan," is by Dr. Serg Marc, a Russian physician, and the other, by Dr. Ollwig, is a report of the results of work done in fighting malaria in East Africa. The articles are good evidence of the thorough way in which our modern physicians study disease, and show how the field of investigation is now world-wide.

A SELECT BIBLIOGRAPHY OF THE FAR EAST.

A LIST OF AUTHORITATIVE RECENT BOOKS ON RUSSIA, JAPAN, CHINA, AND KOREA.

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The Real Japan. By Henry Norman.
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Japan, Our New Ally. By A. Stead.
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A Maker of the New Japan: The Life of Joseph Hardy Neesima, Founder of Doshisha University, Japan. By the Rev. J. D. Davis, D.D., Professor in Doshisha. Revell.
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Japan and the Pacific. By M. Inagaki.
Things Japanese. By Basil Hall Chamberlain.
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Japanese Girls and Women. By Alice Mabel Bacon.
Glimpses of Unfamiliar Japan. By Lafcadio Hearn.
Kokoro: Japanese Inner Life. By Lafcadio Hearn.
Out of the East: Studies in New Japan. By Lafcadio Hearn.
Kotto: Being Japanese Curios. By Lafcadio Hearn. Macmillan.
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- The Ideals of the East.* By Okakura.
An Artist's Letters from Japan. By J. La Farge.
Japan and Its Art. By M. B. Hulsh.
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Quaint Korea. By L. J. Miln.
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GENERAL.

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The Far Eastern Question. By Valentine Chirol. Macmillan.
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THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

THE FIRST NOVELS OF 1904.

IT is a story of a great economic plant, this first novel of the new year. Like James Lane Allen's story of the hemp fields of Kentucky, and Frank Norris' unfinished trilogy of the wheat, Ellen Glasgow's romance, "The Deliverance" (Doubleday, Page), is pervaded by the influence of a plant,—the tobacco. It is an unusually strong story. The theme is the drama of a soul, and the struggle of the powers of good and evil for the dominion over it. It is a romance of the later days of the Confederacy and the early days of reconstruction, presenting a picture of Southern life so often presented before, but this time with master-touches. It is a good story, well handled, with delicious humor playing all through its pages. Such bits of philosophy as the following are well worth remembering:

"You kin fool the quality 'bout quality, but I'll be blamed if you kin fool the niggers."

"The present is a very little part of life; it's the past in which we store our treasures."

"I wouldn't trust a man's judgment on morals any mo' than I would matchin' calico."

"Look at that dandelion, now,—it has filled two hours chock full of thought and color for me, when I might have been puling indoors, and nagging at God Almighty about trifles."

"Don't forget the little things, dear, and the big ones will take care of themselves. I have seen much of men and manners in my life, and they have taught me that it is the small failings, not the big faults, which are deadliest to love."

"The Web" (Doubleday, Page), by Frederick Trevor Hill, is a clever detective story of the law, lawyers, and some ordinary people. It is a love-story also, and its hero, Dave Maddox, stands out clearly against a shifting background of evasions, trickery, political "pull," and often something much worse, which complicates modern legal procedure.

A COUPLE OF NOVELS OF KOREAN LIFE.

A picturesque and thrilling romance of life as known to a missionary among the Koreans is entitled "The Vanguard: A Tale of the Hermit Nation," by James S. Gale (Revell). The story bears on all the phases of life in one of the open ports in the far East, and brings in an American doctor who attended the Emperor's family, two English interpreters, a native schoolteacher, a land speculator, and a German consul, who has a "hired" Japanese wife. Mr. Gale has lived in Korea for the past fifteen years. He knows whereof he writes,—he also knows what to leave out, so that the story tells its own moral.

Several years ago, a romance of Korea entitled "The Queen of Quelparte," by Archer Butler Hulbert, the author of the series on "The Historic Highways of America," appeared serially in the *Chautauquan*. It was afterward published in book form (Little, Brown), and a new edition has just been issued. Mr. Hulbert spent some time in the far East, in Seoul, Korea, as representative of several American newspapers. "The

Queen of Quelparte" is a story of how Russia, by intrigue and deceit, conquered Korea in 1897, in order to ward off Japan from precipitating war because of the Russian lease of Port Arthur.

BIOGRAPHY AND MEMOIRS.

General Armstrong, the founder of Hampton Institute, was one of the most attractive personalities in all the history of American education. His individuality

stands out in such bold relief in all that he said and wrote that those who never saw the man may still feel that they know him through his letters and speeches. His daughter, Mrs. Edith Armstrong Talbot, has fully recognized this fact in the biographical study of her father, recently published by Doubleday, Page & Co. The book is very largely made up of extracts from General Armstrong's letters and journals, and a great part



GEN. S. C. ARMSTRONG.

of it is taken up with a statement of the problems in negro education which General Armstrong had to face in the earlier days, and with an account of the difficulties which confronted him in the great work which he had set himself to do. Mrs. Talbot truly says that even in the ten years which have elapsed since General Armstrong's death, such a change has come over negro affairs that their earlier aspects are almost forgotten. Immediately after the close of the Civil War, General Armstrong was connected with the Freedmen's Bureau, and it was while in that employment that he conceived the far-reaching plans that have since borne fruit in the magnificent work for negroes and Indians conducted at Hampton. All the friends of Hampton know the value of General Armstrong's services, and it is important that the younger generation should read the story of his life as related in this most fascinating biography. It is only after reading this story that one appreciates how much Hampton must have meant to the youthful Booker Washington, and how great was the influence of General Armstrong's life on that of his distinguished pupil.

Mme. Vigée Lebrun, a French artist who in her time (the last four decades of the eighteenth century and the first four of the nineteenth) painted the portraits of not a few of Europe's royal personages, left a volume of memoirs, which has recently been translated into English by Lionel Strachey (Doubleday, Page). Besides having a certain historical value, these memoirs are of interest to the student of art. The volume contains many reproductions of Mme. Lebrun's paintings. The late J. Wells Champney's copy in pastel of Mme. Lebrun's portrait of herself and daughter (the original

of which is now in the gallery of the Louvre) is reproduced as the frontispiece of the February *Century*.

American boys, for two or three generations, have been familiar with the name of Elijah Kellogg, the author of "Spartacus and the Gladiators," "Regulus to the Carthaginians," and many other popular selections for

school declamations, not to speak of the "Elm Island Stories," and various series of tales of wild adventure. The venerable author died a few years ago, at the age of eighty-six. For many years he had preached in the little church at Harpswell, Maine, and had been a familiar figure at the commencement reunions of Bowdoin College. A group of his old friends have brought together in a single volume (Boston:

REV. ELIJAH KELLOGG.

Lee & Shepard) some reminiscences of this patriarch among story-writers, together with selections from his works. Bowdoin graduates and thousands of readers of Mr. Kellogg's writings will find in these pages much to interest them.

An exceedingly interesting volume, well illustrated with new and old portraits, charts, facsimile letters, etc., is Wilfrid Meynell's "Benjamin Disraeli" (Appletons). It is styled "an unconventional biography"—a "sort of cross-breed between biography and autobiography." It consists of a characterization which is made up largely of the words of Beaconsfield himself, with his letters, books, and public documents added. It is Disraeli the man,—the son, brother, husband, friend,—with just enough of the public career of "the Queen's favorite minister" to bring out his personality more sharply. There is "heaps" of interesting reading in the chapter on Beaconsfield's relations with Gladstone. "Why is Mr. Gladstone no favorite of the Queen?" he was asked. "Because he treats her like a public department; I treat her like a woman." "Gentlemen," said Gladstone, in one of his Lancashire speeches, "I stand before you unmuzzled." "Yes," commented Disraeli, "you are almost a statesman. Not redeemed by a single vice." There is a go, a verve, about the book which is charming.

BENJAMIN DISRAELI.

A NEW LIFE OF LINCOLN.

It is somewhat difficult to see that another life of Abraham Lincoln was necessary. What with the encyclopedic work of his two secretaries, and the numberless reminiscent, anecdotal, and philosophic biographies, to say nothing of the "human document" studies and the magazine appreciations without end, it would seem that even this great subject had been fully covered. Dr.

Joseph Hartwell Barrett, however, in his "Abraham Lincoln and His Presidency," just issued in two volumes by the Robert Clarke Company, has perhaps, after all, made a real contribution to Lincolniana. Dr. Barrett boasts of being the first biographer of Lincoln. He was a public man thoroughly familiar with the political questions of the day during the years of Lincoln's rise. He was political editor of the Cincinnati *Gazette* from 1857 to 1861, a delegate to the national Republican convention in 1860, and the Ohio member of the platform committee. After Lincoln's nomination, Dr. Barrett visited him to obtain material for a campaign life. The book appeared in the following June. It was afterward revised for the campaign of 1864, and later, after Lincoln's death, a third edition was published. The biography now offered to the public, however, is a new work built up around the material presented in the first work, with the results of "matured judgment gained by years of study and the clearer insight afforded by the lapse of time." The biographer "aims to represent with adequate completeness and in reasonable compass Lincoln's personal career, the leading historical events in which he took an important part, and his best written and spoken words." He contributes new and valuable material, including unpublished letters of Lincoln, Chase, and others, new anecdotes illustrative of Lincoln's character, and corrections of many errors of fact and inference that have gained general currency. The volumes are illustrated with two hitherto unpublished portraits of Lincoln.

BOOKS OF TRAVEL AND EXPLORATION.

"From Paris to New York by Land" is the somewhat sensational title of a new book by that indefatigable Asiatic traveler, Harry de Windt (Frederick Warne & Co.). Those who followed the story of Mr. de Windt's failure, some years ago, to accomplish the journey from America to Europe by the way of Bering Sea and Siberia will be interested to know that on attempting the reverse journey, starting from Europe and working eastward through Siberia, the explorer was finally successful, and reached New York after eight months of hazardous and difficult travel. For the last fifteen hundred miles of the Siberian journey, Mr. de Windt skirted the coast of the Arctic Ocean, finally reaching East Cape and Bering Sea in the early summer, and being picked up there by the United States revenue cutter *Thetis*. The remainder of his journey, through Alaska, was accomplished in summer, with comparatively little difficulty. Mr. de Windt took many photographs in Siberia and Alaska, which are reproduced in the present volume, and accumulated a great fund of information about the country, some of which will not prove pleasant reading to members of the Russian Government. His condemnation of certain features of the Siberian exile system is hardly less severe than the statements of Mr. George Kennan, which many years ago led to the exclusion of that gentleman from Russian territory.

HARRY DE WINDT.

The volume on "Denmark, Norway, and Sweden," by William Eleroy Curtis (Akron, Ohio: Saalfield Publishing Company), is a useful contribution to our knowledge of modern conditions in northern Europe. Mr. Curtis spent the summer of 1901 in traveling through the countries named, visiting every city of any size, and driving over the excellent country roads. This volume contains the letters written that summer to the *Chicago Record-Herald*. These letters give the impressions of an experienced traveler who knows how to seek out the features that are most likely to interest other travelers, and even stay-at-homes. The fact that a million Swedes, five hundred thousand Norwegians, and three hundred thousand Danes are settled in the United States should enhance our interest in Scandinavian affairs as they appear to an intelligent observer visiting the "old country."

In "Turkish Life in Town and Country," by Lucy M. J. Garnett (Putnams), we have a series of intimate pictures of the domestic customs of the various nationalities represented in the heterogeneous population of European Turkey. All the social grades are included in this survey, and all the distinctive institutions of Turkish society are described. Many features of the life thus sketched are by no means unattractive, despite the constitutional antipathy of the Western mind to Turkish standards, whether of morals or statecraft. The life of the common people, at any rate, evokes our sympathy.

"Canada in the Twentieth Century," by A. G. Bradley (E. P. Dutton & Co.), is a sort of expanded Baedeker, well adapted to the needs of the intending British emigrant, and also containing a great deal of information likely to be useful to Americans contemplating settlement in the Canadian Northwest. The facts are brought well up to date, and the writer speaks, in most cases, from recent observation. The pictures interspersed through the text are interesting and appropriate.

HISTORY AND POLITICS.

Many years ago, the late Gen. Emory Upton, U.S.A., formulated certain recommendations for reform in our army organization, all of which have since been adopted, most of them within very recent years. Among these proposed reforms were the three-battalion system, interchangeability in staff and line, examinations for promotion, and, finally, the establishment of the general staff. General Upton's recommendations were unheeded in his lifetime, and the manuscript which embodied them would probably have remained unprinted but for the interest aroused in the subject by the address of Secretary Root at the laying of the corner-stone of the Army War College building, in Washington, on February 21, 1903. It is now published under the title of "The Military Policy of the United States" (Washington: Government Printing Office), edited by Gen. Joseph P. Sanger, with the assistance of Maj. William D. Beach and Capt. Charles D. Rhodes. It is an exhaustive review of our military policy from the beginning of the Revolutionary War through the first year of the Civil War.

"Five Years in the War Department Following the War with Spain" is a convenient compilation of the annual reports of the Secretary of War, supplying authentic accounts of the principal events and of the action and policy of the United States during the military government at Porto Rico, the development and establishment of the republic of Cuba, the China relief expe-

dition of 1900, the suppression of the insurrection and the building up of civil government in the Philippines, the reorganization of the army, and the beginning of a new militia system. No more striking or effective summary of our recent national history has been written than is contained in these reports of Secretary Root. If not themselves history, they at least constitute the basis upon which history must be written in the future.

The English translation of Guglielmo Ferrero's "Militarism" (Boston: L. C. Page & Co.) will be welcomed by American friends of the peace movement as an important contribution to the propaganda of their cause. The author has adopted the historical method in presenting his theme, and has incorporated in his work many shrewd observations on national and racial traits and peculiarities. It is interesting to note the significance which he attaches to the Spanish-American War. In both the Antilles and the Philippines, he rails the intervention of the United States,—"a more civilized and less military and bellicose government" than Spain,—as a liberation from long-drawn-out sufferings under a military *régime*. In both hemispheres, the results of the war have made for permanent peace.

An excellent account of the Lewis and Clark expedition of a century ago is contained in "Rocky Mountain Exploration," by Reuben G. Thwaites (Appletons). This narrative includes the essential facts, not only of the pioneer expedition, but of the adventures of Pike, Long, Frémont, McKenzie, Thompson, Fraser, and other trans-continental explorers. Never before has the whole story been brought within the limits of a single small volume. Full details may usually be found in larger printed works, but for the mass of readers this briefer treatment will prove far more satisfactory. In the field of Western pioneering, Mr. Thwaites is always at home.

A companion volume to Mr. Thwaites' book is "Steps in the Expansion of Our Territory," by Oscar P. Austin, chief of the Bureau of Statistics at Washington. Mr. Austin's purpose is to deal entirely with the territorial aspects of the subject. With the aid of a series of maps, he is able to point out even to the cursory reader the successive stages by which the nation's growth has proceeded.

In "A Century of Expansion" (Macmillan), Mr. Willis Fletcher Johnson undertakes a more philosophical treatment of the same theme. One finds here some attempt to trace the sequence of cause and effect. The term "expansion" itself is given a broad application, and is conceived as signifying much more than the acquisition of territory. The book, in short, is a history of national development,—not a mere volume of annals of the western course of empire.

Judging from the first two volumes, Mr. Herbert Paul's "History of Modern England" (Macmillan) is to be a journalist's history. The period covered begins with the close of Sir Robert Peel's ministry, in 1846. In the opening chapter, the reader is carried back to the "corn law" agitation, whence dates the free-trade *régime* to the termination of which Mr. Chamberlain is now devoting his undivided energies. Mr. Paul's book is eminently readable. It covers a shorter period than McCarthy's "History of Our Own Times," and makes little or no attempt to treat of events pertaining to other countries than Great Britain.

Perhaps "The Story of New Zealand," by Prof. Frank Parsons (Philadelphia: C. F. Taylor, 1530 Walnut Street), is not so appropriately classed with histories as with books on political, industrial, and social devel-

opment. It is a compendium of facts about one of the most interesting countries in the world to the student of sociology. Professor Parsons seems to have reviewed all the documentary and statistical material relating to his subject, and, fortunately, New Zealand is not so old but that such material exists in abundance. With his accustomed thoroughness, Professor Parsons has sifted the data, picking out what is essential to an understanding of the peculiar social and economic conditions in the presence of which the structure of New Zealand's government has been built up. Readers of the late Henry D. Lloyd's book on the same subject will be glad to have this fuller treatment. Such institutions as the Torrens system of title-registration, postal savings-banks, government life insurance, the public trust office, industrial arbitration, the referendum, and the state operation of coal mines are described in detail, and, in fact, no feature of New Zealand's remarkable institutional life has been neglected.

DIFFERENT PHASES OF LITERATURE AND ART.

A series of graceful essays on the effect of the home landscape on writers of heart-appeal—Wordsworth, Emerson, Irving, Goethe, Blackmore, Whitman, and Scott—have been collected in a volume under the title "Backgrounds of Literature," by Hamilton Wright Mable (The Outlook Company). Mr. Mable knows the springs of literary genius, and it is a very charming series of studies, sympathetically and adequately illustrated, which he gives us in this volume. To understand Wordsworth, Scott, and Irving, especially, the background of landscape must be taken into account, because nature is the key to their work.

The heart-confessions of a literary man of the world are the latest efforts of E. F. Benson, author of "The Relentless City" and "Dodo." A London man-about-town jots down his adventures and experiences, and as they are more or less appropriate to certain seasons, they are set down under the headings which justify the book's general title, "The Book of Months" (Harpers). The word pictures are really charming, and are full of witty observations, worldly wisdom, and gentle philosophy. A simple and touching love-story runs through the book, which is illustrated by marginal drawings in color.

Prof. Oscar Kuhns, of Wesleyan University, has revised and enlarged his book on Italian literature, originally prepared for the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle, making a new illustrated work of some size, under the title "The Great Poets of Italy" (Houghton, Mifflin). Quotations (in translation) from the works of these poets are given. The chapters upon the particular authors are connected by brief sketches of the literature intervening, thus bringing the story of Italian letters from its origin down to the present time, and giving a good general knowledge of that literature, together with some acquaintance with the work of Dante, Petrarch, Boccaccio, Ariosto, Tasso, Leopardi, Carducci, D'Annunzio, and others.

"The Five Nations" (Doubleday, Page) is a collection of splendid international topical songs which Mr. Kipling has given to the world during the past seven years. The five nations are the British Empire—Great Britain, Canada, India, Australia, and South Africa. The volume contains all of the more famous of the older poems, besides about twenty-five new and hitherto unpublished ones. Among the better-known ones are "White Horses," "The White Man's Burden," "Our Lady of the Snows," "The Truce of the Bear," "The Islanders,"

"Kitchener's School," and "The Recessional." It is the same strong, virile Kipling, with a touch perhaps a bit surer and more mature.

Music, as represented in painting and sculpture, is a fascinating study. Some of the results of a rather cursory examination of the subject are gathered in a pretty little illustrated volume, under the title "Music in Art," by Luna May Ennis (L. C. Page). There are chapters on "Myth and Enchantment," "St. Cecilia," "The Composers," "Poets and Heroes," "Youth and Love," "Worship," and the illustrations are reproductions of some of the great masterpieces of painting and sculpture.

In his play "Monna Vanna" (recently issued in book form by the Harpers), which has produced such a profound impression on the stages of Europe and the United States, Maurice Maeterlinck has certainly given us one of his most powerful dramas. The scenes are laid in Pisa, in Italy, at the end of the fifteenth century. The theme of the play is the very highest ideal of love, as shown in a woman's sacrifice of herself to save her city. The drama is developed by the action of a very few characters, the strong scenes being in dialogue between the woman and her husband, whose lack

MAURICE MAETERLINCK.

of subtlety precipitates the real tragedy.

In surveying American literature from the point of view of its relations to the country at large, it is "impossible to escape a sense of fragmentariness in the products, of disproportion between literary energy and the other vital powers of the people, and of the inadequacy of literature as a function of national expression." This is the conviction of Prof. George E. Woodberry, who has just resigned his position as head of the English department of Columbia University, and who will soon, it is announced, undertake the editing (for McClure, Phillips) of a "new universal library" of the classical literatures of England, America, and other countries. In his recently published volume, "America in Literature" (Harpers), which originally appeared as separate articles in *Harper's Magazine* and *Harper's Weekly*, Professor Woodberry declares that the geographical distribution of American literature reflects the movement of population, and is therefore uneven. "Humor alone is native to the whole country; and hence, perhaps, Mark Twain, in that sphere, most nearly approaches the position of the national writer. . . . But there has been no national author in the universal sense."

RELIGION AND WORLD-MOVEMENTS.

"Missions and World Movements" (Jennings & Pye) is a splendid international political sermon in Bishop Charles H. Fowler's best style of thought and diction. The onward swing of Russia over the vasts of Asia, over China, to the overlordship of the world,—unless united Anglo-Saxondom stands up and says No,—this is the text.

A series of three short tales by Leo Tolstoy, translated by Louise and Aylmer Maude (Funk & Wagnalls),

has just been issued—"written and translated for the benefit of the Jews impoverished by the riots in Kishineff and Gomel." The three tales differ in literary form, but all enforce the main tenets of Tolstoy's philosophy,—non-resistance to evil, and the unity and sacredness of all life. The little volume, which has a new picture of Count Tolstoy for its frontispiece, contains two letters from the author-philosopher expressing his horror at the anti-Jewish outrages in Russia.

It has been pointed out that certain analogies exist between different ages of thought widely separated in time. The age of the Sophists in ancient Greece and of the later eighteenth century in France have this in common, that they are both periods of *aufklärung*, or enlightenment. "Both are characterized by notable movements in thought, philosophical and religious, in political and social organization, in practical life and conduct, which differ in the two ages by all the divergence which measures the distance of antiquity from modern times, but which, notwithstanding this diversity,—in spite, also, of the phenomena distinctive of the two epochs,—are so resemblant that the unity of the name is justified." How far does a similar likeness hold between other eras of transition? Is there any analogy between the present and any preceding age? This problem is stated clearly, and a solution attempted, by Dr. A. C. Armstrong, professor of philosophy in Wesleyan University, in a book entitled "Transitional Eras in Thought" (Macmillan). Characterizing the present as an age of transition, Dr. Armstrong makes "an inquiry into the development of Western thought and culture," from the standpoint of "reflective thinking and of thought in all its broader reaches."

"Your body is the dramatization of your soul. It holds the tragedies and comedies of life. An evil spirit chooses ugly external forms. A beautiful spirit seeks always and only to illumine the organism it inhabits." This philosophy is laid down and elaborated in a volume entitled "Builders of the Beautiful" (Funk & Wagnalls), by H. L. Pines.

"RELIGIONS OF AUTHORITY."

In 1897, "The Outlines of a Philosophy of Religion Based Upon Psychology and History," by Auguste Sabatier, late dean of the Protestant Faculty of Theology in the University of Paris, appeared in France. A sequel to this work, under the title "Religions of Authority and the Religion of the Spirit" (McClure, Phillips), has just been published in English, "consecrated to the solution of the question of method in theology." There are two systems of theology, says M. Sabatier in his preface—"two systems confronting each other,—the theology of authority and the theology of experience. They are characterized by methods radically opposed in the scientific development of religious ideas and Christian dogma. . . . At the present hour, one method is dying, and is destined soon to disappear; the other is taking on even more vigorous development, and is destined to triumph." The problem not only belongs to philosophy, but it reacts upon the social order, and underlies, especially in France, all political agitation. Just now, in view of the tremendous struggle going on in the French republic between Church and State, this thoughtful work will appeal to the general reader as well as to the student. The book is really a searching inquiry into the ground upon which our accepted forms and religions stand, and of the claim that they have upon our consideration. It may stir up controversy in both Catholic and Protestant

churches; but we venture to say that it will do good to many people, because it really solves some religious problems, or comes nearer to solving them than any other book recently published. The author lived but ten days after putting the final touches to his work. He was a writer of considerable power,—an historian, a great theologian, and, for some time, one of the editors of the Paris *Temps*. The English translation is by Louise Seymour Houghton.

AN EASTERN VIEW OF WESTERN CIVILIZATION.

A remarkably keen and trenchantly written characterization of Western civilization from an Oriental point of view has been published in a little book entitled "Letters from a Chinese Official" (McClure, Phillips). While originally written for an English hearing, the significance of these letters (the anonymous author believes) "should appeal with a peculiar force to Americans." Their interest, he says, and justly, depends, "not upon topical allusions, but upon the whole contrast suggested between Eastern and Western ideals. And America, in a preëminent degree, is representative of the West. . . . What is at stake in the development of the American republic is nothing less than the success or failure of Western civilization."

It is not flattering to Occidentals, the comparison drawn between the two civilizations by this Chinaman, who contends that Eastern "profound mistrust and dislike" of Western ideals are based upon reason. The antiquity of Asiatic civilization, he says, has given a stability to its institutions not found in the West,—it "embodies a moral order, while in yours we detect only an economic chaos." "You profess Christianity, but your civilization has never been Christian; whereas ours is Confucian through and through. . . . Among you, no one is contented, no one has leisure to live, so intent are all on increasing the means of living. . . . We of the East measure the degree of civilization, not by accumulation of the means of living, but by the character and value of the life lived. . . . And we would not if we could rival you in your wealth, your sciences, and your arts if we must do so at the cost of imitating your institutions. . . . While we recognize the greatness of your practical and scientific achievements, yet we find it impossible unreservedly to admire a civilization which has produced manners so coarse, morals so low, and an appearance so unlovely as those with which we are constantly confronted in your great cities."

Family life, labor, economics, and industry in general; politics, art, and literature, and religion, are all considered calmly, and, for the most part, to the embarrassing disadvantage of the West. Confucianism, he observes, may be no religion at all. It may be only an inferior ethical code. "But it has made of the Chinese the one nation in all the history of the world which genuinely abhors violence and reverences reason and right." The Chinese "believe in right so firmly that they scorn to think it requires to be supported or enforced by might."

"Irony of ironies,—it is the nations of Christendom that have come to teach us by fire and sword that Right in this world is powerless unless it be supported by Might! Oh, do not doubt that we shall learn the lesson! And woe to Europe when we have acquired it! You are arming a nation of four hundred millions!—a nation which, until you came, had no better wish than to live at peace with themselves and all the world. In the name of Christ, you have sounded the call to arms! In the name of Confucius, we respond!"

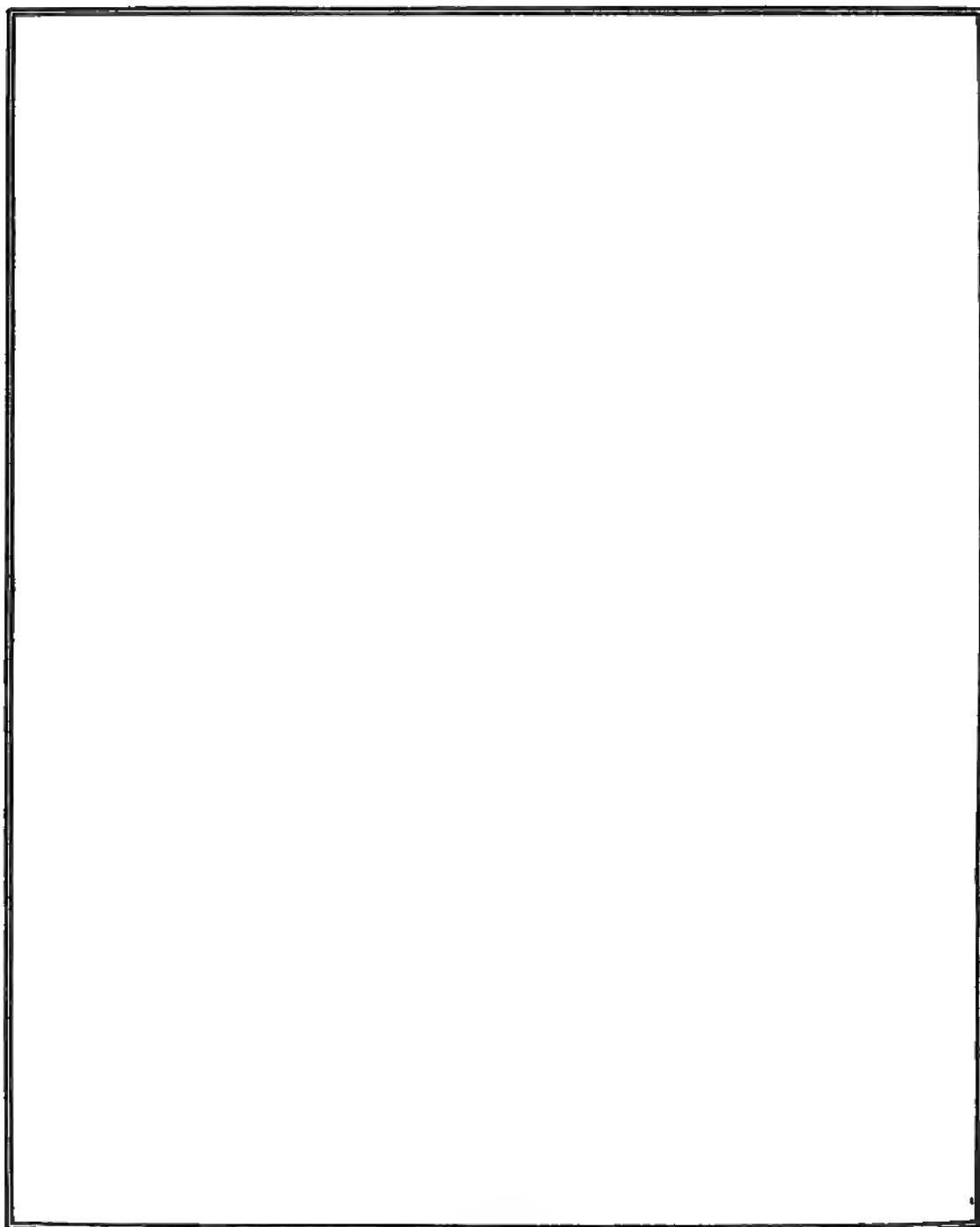
THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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GENERAL ALEXEI NICOLAIEVITCH KUROPÀTKIN.

(Commander-in-chief of the Russian army in the far East.)

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Review of Reviews.

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

A Great Case Adjudged. The Supreme Court last month rendered its anxiously awaited decision in the Northern Securities case. The judgment of this tribunal of last resort sustains that of the Circuit Court, and the Northern Securities Company is permanently enjoined from doing those things for which it was organized. The earlier history of this famous case has been fully set forth from time to time in the pages of the *Review*, and it will not be necessary to retrace in detail the familiar ground. To some readers, however, a very brief recapitulation may be useful. The Great Northern and the Northern Pacific railroad systems have for a number of years past been operated in entire harmony with each other. The Great Northern system had been created by the genius of Mr. James J. Hill. Besides its network of lines in Minnesota and the Dakotas, it possesses the most northerly of our lines extending across the country to the Pacific. The Northern Pacific system,—also possessing a line from the Great Lakes to the Pacific, and a network of branch lines and feeders,—had some years ago, as a result of financial reorganization, passed under the control of a group of financiers in close accord with Mr. James J. Hill. Under circumstances not necessary here to recount, these two systems three years ago became the joint purchasers and owners of the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy system.

A Device for Merging Control. It became their policy to give as complete effect as possible to plans for continued unity of control and general harmony of administration throughout the great network of railway lines that had come to be known as the Hill system. They could not consolidate their lines under one board of directors, because this was expressly forbidden by the constitution and laws of Minnesota and other Northwestern States which had granted their charters. They adopted, therefore, the device of a new company which should acquire and hold

a controlling amount of stock in the Great Northern and Northern Pacific systems. This holding company, known as the Northern Securities, was formed under the laws of New Jersey, and in due time it acquired nearly all the stock of the Great Northern system, and much more than half the stock of the Northern Pacific. The Northern Securities was thus in a position to keep the two railroad systems from drifting apart in control, since their stocks were withdrawn from the market and Northern Securities stock substituted therefor. The management of the Northern Securities Company, meanwhile, was in a position to elect the boards of directors and dictate the general policy of the three great railroad systems which had thus been virtually merged into a single combination.

Arraigned as Unlawful. The authorities of Minnesota and other Northwestern States regarded all this as an evasion of their laws. Accordingly, they proceeded to bring actions in the courts. They regarded it, furthermore, as in violation of the so-called "Sherman anti-trust law," and they called upon the administration at Washington to take proceedings under that statute against the Northern Securities Company and its projectors. When this appeal was made to President Roosevelt by the Governor and the Attorney-General of Minnesota, and by other Western State officials, he referred it, as a technical question, to the Department of Justice. Attorney-General Knox reported to the President that in his opinion there was a violation of the Sherman Act, and that it was the duty of the Government to begin proceedings in the courts to enforce the law. Whereupon, President Roosevelt instructed the Attorney-General to set in motion the necessary machinery. Great consternation fell upon Wall Street, not so much because of embarrassment to the corporations and financiers immediately concerned in the Northern Securities venture as because of the

possible bearings of the legal principles involved upon various other railroad combinations already made or in contemplation. Far-seeing business men understood at once that so long as this litigation was pending there would be a check upon the process of forming new combinations, and a feeling of depression and uncertainty in the stock market.

A Divided Bench.

When the Circuit Court at St. Paul, in April, 1903, with four judges on the bench, decided unanimously in favor of the Government and against the Northern Securities, it was generally assumed that the Supreme Court would take a like view. There was the more reason for this opinion because the Supreme Court in two or three former cases had placed a very extreme construction upon the Sherman anti-trust law, and one not intended by those who had drawn and enacted the measure. It was, indeed, these former decisions that determined the judgment of the Circuit bench. The defense, however, held its position in good faith, and argued its cause with great ability at Washington, hoping to persuade the court, not merely to reverse the decision of the judges of the lower tribunal, but also to reverse its own interpretation of the Sherman law as set forth in previous cases. How effectively this work for the defense was done under very difficult circumstances,—among which are to be reckoned the pressure of public opinion and the prestige of the administration,—is shown in the fact that of the nine members of the Supreme Court, only five concurred in the decision, while four dissented. Furthermore, one of the five, while joining in the decision, dissented from the principles and reasoning set forth in the opinion that accompanied the decision. This opinion was prepared by Justice Harlan, and he was supported by Justices Brown, McKenna, and Day. Justice Brewer joined in the decision

against the Northern Securities, but dissented from the reasoning of Justice Harlan, and did not, therefore, concur in the opinion. On the other hand, Chief Justice Fuller and Justices White, Peckham, and Holmes wholly dissented from the decision and the majority opinion, and there were strong dissenting opinions prepared by Justices White and Holmes.

Bearings of the Decision.

It is quite permissible to say that the five jurists who dissent from the opinion prepared by Justice Harlan, of Kentucky, are fully as capable of dealing with the intricate questions involved as the four who concur in the opinion prepared by that eminent and veteran justice. For practical purposes, in so far as the immediate position of the Northern Securities Company is concerned, the decision is as complete and final as if all of the nine judges had agreed. But for the broader bearings of the matter the result is far from decisive. It may, indeed, fairly be said that the position now taken by Chief Justice Fuller and Justice Peckham, and the opinions expressed by Justice Brewer, show that the court is tending strongly away from the extreme and rigid positions it formerly held.

JUSTICE HARLAN.

The questions at issue are chiefly technical ones, having to do with forms of corporate organization. The decision, in turn, has been rendered upon legal points of a very technical nature.

Can Combination Be Broken Up?

We live in a period of great railroad combinations, and these are in the main as beneficial as they are inevitable. The Sherman anti-trust law was never intended as an instrument for breaking up railroad combinations, and it is probably unfortunate that it has been diverted to this unexpected use, since the natural and proper way of regulating railroad abuses thus tends to be neglected or overlooked. The Sherman anti-trust law is properly applicable to businesses of a private nature, such

as the coal trust, the sugar trust, the oil trust, or the steel trust, when they act oppressively. The railroad business is not private, but public. Railroad companies are chartered to perform public functions of a highly necessary character. They are subject to constant supervision and direct public control. Their charters can be revoked if the rights of the public are violated. They can be duly punished if they discriminate unfairly against individuals or places. If their rates for carrying passengers or freight are too high, these can be reduced by the State legislatures, or by railroad commissions duly empowered.

*False
Economics
in the Courts.*

It has been the antiquated doctrine of the courts that the relations between common carriers and the public are regulated by the principle of competition. This misunderstanding of economic laws permeates the opinion of the majority in this last Supreme Court decision. The application of the Sherman law to the Northern Securities case is one thing, and the elaborate economic reasoning of Circuit Judge Thayer and Justice Harlan, in their accompanying opinions, is a totally different thing. The principle of competition as an effective regulator of railroad rates has forever disappeared. The whole tendency of modern scientific railroading is toward open, standard methods of doing business, and no fulminations from the bench can drive well-conducted transportation systems back to the bad old period of piratical rate cutting and secret rebates and discriminations from which a wiser and better business

JUSTICE HOLMES.

world has been trying to escape. Yet that is all that "competition" means.

*Importance
of Law-
Enforcement.*

Laws must be respected, even if they are antiquated and needless. If the Northern Securities arrangement was indeed a violation of the Sherman anti-trust law (and nearly half of the Supreme Court judges declare that it was not), then clearly it was the duty of the Attorney-General to bring an action, and it was equally necessary for the courts to sustain that action. It does not follow, however, that the country is to be congratulated upon a vindication of its liberties. The thing that the President of the United States has done has been to demonstrate his fidelity to his oath of office. He had undertaken to enforce the laws of the land without fear or favor. The decision of the Circuit Court sufficiently vindicated the President's exercise of good judgment in acting upon the request of the authorities of Minnesota and upon the advice of his own Attorney-General. It leaves his position as an executive officer without a flaw. If, indeed, Justice Brewer, from his almost evenly balanced position, had happened to drop on the other side of the fence, Mr. Knox would have lost his case. But even then President Roosevelt would have been entitled to congratulation upon his effort to secure an interpretation of the law.

BUT THIS LITTLE PIG WENT "WEE! WEE!! WEE!!! CAN'T GET OVER UNCLE SAM'S DOORSILL!"—*Journal* (Minneapolis).

As to the Western People Thomasizes.

The gentlemen who own the Great Northern and Northern Pacific Railroad systems, and who wish to operate them in a harmonious and scientific way for the more prosperous development of the Northwest, cannot well be prevented from pursuing this useful general policy. If, on the other hand, they should design, through unlawful combination or otherwise, to oppress the public or injure any interests whatsoever, the people of the Northwest would have abundant remedies readily at hand; and the most far-fetched and least useful of all possible remedies would lie in such an action as this which has just been taken under the Sherman law. Thus, while President Roosevelt is to be congratulated for enforcing laws, good, bad, and indifferent, as they stand on the statute books, he is certainly not to be congratulated for having broken up an oppressive trust or having delivered the people of the Northwest from a dangerous conspiracy in restraint of trade. The people of the Northwest who patronize the Northern Pacific and Great Northern lines will not be able to detect the faintest shadow of a difference in the way in which these common carriers will serve them.

How to Deal with Railroads.

Students of railroad economics, even when approaching the subject from the most diametrically opposite standpoints, agree that no public benefit could arise from breaking large systems up into small ones, and agree, on the other hand, that much practi-

HON. JOSEPH E. FORAKER, OF OHIO.

(Who has introduced in the Senate a very proper amendment defining the Sherman anti-trust law and exempting railroads from its operation.)

cal good has resulted from the amalgamating tendency. Nobody who is really anxious that the railroads should serve the public efficiently has ever for a moment supposed that anything toward that end could be accomplished by attacking railroad combinations under the anti-trust law. Those who really have the cause of the people at heart are trying to stiffen up the Interstate Commerce Act and to increase the power of the Interstate Commerce Commission to regulate rates and to deal with abuses. They wish to amend the law so as to permit pooling agreements under prescribed conditions. In like manner, the intelligent railway reformers who have the cause of the people at heart would call upon the various State governments to exercise their unquestioned powers, through direct regulation and control, to meet all abuses which do not lie within the sphere of interstate commerce. Thus, the State of Minnesota, by the exercise of its taxing power, by the exercise of its rate-making authority, by the use of its unquestioned power to regulate in a hundred different ways the character of the service rendered to passengers and shippers, and, in the last resort, by its power to abrogate charters and condemn and appropriate the roads themselves, can protect itself with entire facility against any attempt on the part of the owners of Minnesota railroads to subject the people of that State to any disadvantage.

AND NOW FOR AN HEROIC RESCUE.

(From the wreck of Northern Securities, James J. Hill seeks rescue in Senator Foraker's lifeboat.)
From the *Dispatch* (St. Paul).

A Necessary Distinction.

It is, then, a regrettable confusion of mind that fails to note the sharp distinction that exists between the problem of regulating the railroads for the public benefit and the problem of properly guarding against the evils of the great industrial trusts. In so far as the federal government is concerned, there should be a strengthening of the Interstate Commerce Act for the better regulation of railroads; and action under the anti-trust law should be directed toward the industrial combinations, especially those which exist for the sole purpose of maintaining an arbitrary and improper price for an article of common necessity. Such a price is that which the people are compelled to pay for anthracite coal. Thus, a breaking up of the anthracite combination would put millions of dollars into the pockets of the people, because the combination which dominates the mining, marketing, and price of coal is able to exact a great deal more than the normal and proper price. The breaking up of the Northern Securities Company, on the other hand, will not put a penny into the pocket of anybody who buys a railroad ticket, or of any farmer who ships a carload of grain. It is, therefore, a very poor and ineffective sort of law against trusts under which a really oppressive combination cannot be reached, while the energies of the Government are devoted to compelling a great railway system to shift the technical form of its organization without affecting its practical relations to the people.

Some Difficulties.

All this is said without the slightest thought of reflection either upon those who make or those who enforce the laws. President Roosevelt and his administration have faced the problems of improving the laws and enforcing the laws with a good faith so entirely above reproach that no criticism can justly be brought against their policy, their methods, or their motives. They have been just as ready and willing to bring action against the coal trust as against the Northern Securities. But the present authority of the United States over commerce is confined to interstate matters. The anthracite-coal industry is wholly within the boundaries of Pennsylvania. No one knowing President Roosevelt's relation to the great coal strike could possibly suppose that any personal disposition to shield a particular combination furnished a reason for failure to proceed against the anthracite monopoly under the Sherman Act. The great service that President Roosevelt has rendered,—and its importance cannot be overstated,—is to give the whole country a new sense of respect for law. The gentlemen who form

the Northern Securities Company certainly had no evil designs against the welfare of any class of people; but it may fairly be said that they tried to do in an indirect way what the laws forbade them to do in a direct way.

The Dominance of Law.

It is undoubtedly true that there was a widespread popular feeling throughout the Northwest, and in the country at large, that the great corporations were finding methods which circumvented the laws and set the Government at defiance. It is equally true that the decision against the Northern Securities Company conveys a certain reassurance to the public in that it makes people feel that law and government are still dominant in this country. The attempt to make it appear to the business community that President Roosevelt is unsafe because he firmly supported the Attorney-General in bringing the action could only in the long run have exactly the opposite effect from that intended. Already the business world begins to see clearly that the President, in standing for the supremacy of the law, is occupying the only really safe and conservative position. It is upon such grounds that the Northern Securities episode has been a valuable one.

An Independent Judiciary.

In passing, it may be remarked that the independence and sincerity of the Supreme Court is well illustrated by the positions taken by its various members. It had been repeatedly asserted that President McKinley would never have allowed this action to be brought. Yet Justice Day, the close personal friend of Mr. McKinley, and also of Mr. Hanna, concurred in the decision, while Justice Holmes, the newest member of the bench, and regarded as Mr. Roosevelt's personal as well as official selection, took the opposite side and wrote an opposing opinion. A further study of the division in the court would indicate an entire freedom from political or party bias.

Political Bearings.

It has been natural that the question should be asked, what bearing the Northern Securities case would have upon this year's Presidential campaign. It would seem that it must be advantageous to President Roosevelt, as showing his firm qualities as an executive. The case has served in a concrete way to strengthen the belief that President Roosevelt will enforce the laws as they stand and will not hesitate to do his duty as he sees it. His views upon the regulation and control of corporations have been fully set forth by him in messages to Congress and in prepared speeches. His attitude has been one of justice and fairness

toward all interests. The record of his position on the trust question is fully made up. He can afford to lay that record before the country for analysis and criticism through the period of the campaign, and he can stand upon it when election day comes around in November. To what extent, therefore, the trust question will be agitated in the campaign must depend, not upon Mr. Roosevelt's record, which is already a known factor, but upon the ticket and the platform of the Democratic party, both of which are as yet wholly unknown factors.

be instructed for Olney. If the Parker movement should succeed, it would not be possible for the Democrats to fight a campaign on the trust issue. If the Hearst-Bryan combination should control the St. Louis convention, the trust issue would be made very prominent. Assuming that the long-standing rule requiring a two-thirds majority to nominate will be maintained in this year's Democratic convention, it seems likely enough, from the present outlook, that what we may call the "right wing" and the "left wing" will each go to St. Louis with the requisite one-third wherewith to block the plans of the other, and that the convention will evolve some kind of compromise.

*The
Republican
Situation.*

About President Roosevelt's nomination in the Republican convention, which will meet at Chicago on June 21, there is, of course, no question. He will be named by acclamation and without dissent, just as Mr. McKinley was at Philadelphia in 1900. Who will be named for Vice-President is a question that has not advanced beyond the stage of political gossip. The death of Senator Hanna left Postmaster-General Payne in the position of acting chairman of the National Republican Committee. Mr. Perry Heath's prompt resignation as secretary of the committee was followed by the appointment of Mr. Hanna's private secretary, Mr. Elmer Dover, to the vacancy. The reorganization of the committee for campaign work will not be made until the convention, in June. The new chairman is not yet agreed upon.



HE LANDED ALL RIGHT.—From the *Herald* (New York).

*The
Democratic
Dilemma.*

The Democrats of the country are at this moment in a strange dilemma. They see on the one hand the most conservative forces in the country rallying for the control of the party convention, and on the other hand the most extreme and radical elements of the country asserting—with bold tactics and apparent efficiency of method—their determination to write the platform and name the ticket at St. Louis. It would be useless to make any predictions, in view of this remarkable situation. The conservative elements seem gradually to have been finding their way toward an agreement upon Judge Parker, of New York, as their candidate. The radicals have accepted the candidacy of William R. Hearst, whose influence is due to the large circulation of the newspapers controlled by him, and to the attitude of those newspapers toward public questions. In so far as delegates had been appointed with instructions, Parker and Hearst were the only candidates last month. It is expected, however, that the Massachusetts delegates will

IT CAN'T BE DONE, COLONEL.—From the *World* (New York).

*Politics
in New York.*

The party leaders have been watching the political situation in several important States, as having a serious bearing upon the election prospects next November. For Democratic success, it is essential to carry the State of New York. While not so essential to the Republicans, it is regarded as necessary to make every effort to hold the Empire State in the party column. Yet in both party organizations in New York there has been for many weeks past a state of bitter controversy and struggle. In the Democratic party, the factional leaders are Mr. Murphy, at the head of Tammany and the metropolitan wing of the party, and ex-Senator David B. Hill, at the head of the so-called "up-State" Democracy. Mr. Hill is the chief engineer of the Parker Presidential boom, and has been working for an instructed Parker delegation to St. Louis. Mr. Murphy has been working for an uninstructed delegation, and this, of course, would mean a split at St. Louis, with Mr. Murphy and the Tammany half of the delegation probably supporting Hearst. The logic of such a position is not far to see. It is a curious fact that so few of the leading supporters of Mr. Seth Low and the Fusion ticket in the recent municipal contest in New York City have ever been able to comprehend that Fusion was defeated and Tammany restored to power chiefly through the energetic support of Mr. Hearst and his newspapers. It was this force that made Mr. McClellan mayor, sent Bourke Cockran to Congress, and gave the New York Democracy its fresh start.

HON. DAVID B. HILL.

(Leader of the New York Democracy.)

*Will Tammany
Support
Hearst?*

To state the case the other way, Tammany would have been easily defeated if Mr. Hearst, of the *American and Journal*, had decided, like Mr. Pulitzer, of the *World*, to support the Fusion ticket. Mr. Murphy, therefore, owes his present power and prestige far more to Mr. Hearst's newspapers than to anything else. To those who have taken note of the manner in which the Hearst Presidential movement has been organized and pushed, it would not appear credible that the Hearst influence should have restored Tammany to power without a perfectly distinct understanding that Tammany would quietly hold itself in reserve for support of the Bryan-Hearst combination at St. Louis. It is also plain that under conditions existing in New York the most that Hearst could expect would be an uninstructed delegation. To have declared openly for Hearst would have been bad politics, for it would have concentrated the conservatives on Parker. To keep the conservatives divided, the Tammany leadership talked very beautifully, last month, about Mr. Cleveland. It is a very astute position that Mr. Murphy has taken. With an uninstructed delegation, he could throw his strength either way at St. Louis, according to the exigencies of the situation. It seems more probable, however, that the New York Democracy will commit itself definitely to the candidacy of Judge Parker. If this happens, the credit will be chiefly due to David B. Hill's strategy.

THE GENTLE TIGER: TO BE HANDLED WITH CARE.
From the *Herald* (New York).

and is, moreover, so sincere and so eloquent an exponent of those policies, that if he were nominated for governor of New York this year it would be regarded as about the most consistent and telling stroke the party could make. It would do more than anything else to bring real questions to the front, and to cause mere organization frictions to assume their proper insignificance.

Mr. Hanna's Successor. The Ohio Legislature being in session, steps

were promptly taken to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Senator Hanna. The conspicuous figure in the eyes of the country at large was Gov. Myron T. Herrick, who had in November carried the State by so large a majority. But Governor Herrick had been only a few weeks in office, and doubtless thought it undignified to take any steps in the direction of an effort to reach the Senate. The prize was accordingly carried off

GOV. BENJAMIN B. ODELL, OF NEW YORK.

New York Republicans.

The Republican situation in New York has been discussed, of late, chiefly with reference to the alleged rivalry between Governor Odell and Senator Platt in the control of the party organization. Governor Odell is regarded as now in full authority as the active party manager. But this is declared to be highly distasteful to supporters of Senator Platt. Some of his friends wish Governor Odell to run for a third term, but he has absolutely refused. It is reported that he will resume his old place as chairman of the State Republican Committee. Many Republicans were of the opinion, last month, that the best thing the party could do would be to tender the Hon. Elihu Root, ex-Secretary of War, a unanimous nomination for governor. The Republicans of New York could do nothing that would give so much reassurance to their fellow-partisans throughout the country. Nothing short of a unanimous demand could affect Mr. Root's determination to lead a private life, after long years of self-sacrificing public service. Mr. Root has been so large a part of Republican prestige and policies for the past five or six years,

by Mr. Charles Dick, long known as an efficient worker in the Republican organization, and for some years past a member of Congress from the Akron district. Mr. Dick was probably the most trusted agent of Mr. McKinley and Mr. Hanna in the management of Ohio politics. He has been identified with National Guard interests, and holds the rank of major-general in the Ohio militia. He went to Cuba as lieutenant-colonel in an Ohio volunteer regiment. He has been elected to the House four times. Factional differences in Ohio have survived Mr. Hanna.

The Panama Canal Assured.

The most important of the history-making events in our American record for the present season is the completion of preliminaries toward the construction of a transoceanic canal. The ratification of the Panama treaty by the Senate at Washington took place on the 23d of February. There were 66 votes in favor, and only 14 against. If every member had been present and had voted, the result would have been 72 yeas and 17 nays. Of the 33 Democratic Senators, 16 were in favor of the treaty, and 17 were opposed. The Repub-

icans, without exception, supported the treaty. So important a matter of national policy ought certainly to have been lifted out of the rut of partisanship, and it is very fortunate that half of the Democratic Senators voted for ratification. The calumnies uttered against the President as respects the fomenting of revolution in Panama have already fallen into their deserved oblivion. The general discussion, however, has left behind it some memorable utterances which will live and possess, not merely historical interest, but cumulative value as expositions of American policy. Among these are President Roosevelt's messages and a number of speeches made in the Senate. As a justification of American policy upon broad lines, the most brilliant effort of all was Mr. Elihu Root's great speech, on Washington's Birthday, at Chicago. Southern public opinion was wisely and ably led by journalists like Mr. Clark Howell, of Atlanta, and a number of the Southern Senators responded to the plain wishes of their constituents. The treaty went into effect on the 26th of February with an exchange of ratifications and a proclamation by the President. The situation has been accepted by Colombia, and Panama is generally recognized.

HON. CLARK HOWELL, OF THE ATLANTA "CONSTITUTION."
(Who led Southern sentiment for the canal treaty.)

The Panama Republic.

Minister Bunau-Varilla, having accomplished his mission on behalf of Panama, promptly resigned. His successor is Señor Pablo Arosemena, one of the most prominent of the group who created the new republic. Early in March, President Roosevelt appointed Mr. John Barrett as minister to Panama, transferring him from Buenos Ayres, and named as Mr. Barrett's successor for Argentina Mr. Beaupré, who had for several years been our minister to Colombia. Mr. Barrett was a member of the last Pan-American conference, and is conversant with Latin-American affairs and opinions. Mr. William L. Russell, who has been acting as *chargé d'affaires* at Panama, has been made minister to Colombia, to succeed Mr. Beaupré. President Manuel Amador, whose election as President of Panama was previously noted in these pages, was inaugurated on February 20, the constitutional convention having completed its labors. In his inaugural address, he took enlightened and reasonable positions. He selected the following gentlemen as the first members of his cabinet: Señor Tomas Arias, minister of government and foreign relations; Dr. Espriella, minister of finance; Señor Julio Fabrega, minister of public instruction and justice; Señor Manuel Quintero, minister of the interior and public works.

Photo by Baker, Columbus.

HON. CHARLES DICK, OF OHIO.
(Who succeeds Mr. Hanna in the Senate.)

part of the United States army. The country will expect the commissioners to put into this public work the highest degree of engineering and constructive efficiency ever yet shown in any large enterprise. They have at their disposal an immense amount of preliminary study that others have given to the Panama situation, and all the improved processes that have been developed in excavation work on a large scale since the French company began digging at Panama.

The Work to Be Pushed. The work of government commissions generally goes on slowly. Con-

trary, also, to the general impression, public work in America is not usually pushed with European swiftness and efficiency. It is much to be doubted, indeed, whether Congress was wise in ordering the President to put this work into

the hands of a board of seven commissioners. For purposes of inquiry or investigation, a board is useful. For the execution of a practical task, a single head is better.

There will, however, be nothing to prevent Congress from abolishing this cumbersome commission whenever it may so choose, in favor of the simpler and better plan of directing the President to proceed with the construction of the canal through the War

Department, or

CARICATURE OF JOHN BARRETT.
(From the *Caras y Caretas*, of Buenos Ayres, Argentina.)

otherwise. The Treasury has made due preparation for paying the ten million dollars due to Panama and the forty millions that will be due to the French company upon the transfer of the property. Secretary Shaw has raised, approximately, thirty million dollars by calling in 20 per cent. of the public money on deposit with various banks throughout the United States. The remaining twenty millions will be paid from cash in the Treasury. It is expected that the formal transfer of the canal and its accompanying assets will be made in the very near future. Bills were pending in Congress last month providing for the orderly government and control of the canal strip. The Government will probably be placed in the hands of the President and the Canal Commission. Admiral Walker

HON. JOHN BARRETT.

(Appointed minister to Panama.)

The Men Who Will Dig the Canal.

On February 29, the President sent to the Senate the names of the men he had selected in accordance with the law to constitute the commission of seven which is to supervise the construction of the Panama Canal. It turned out that the President had placed at the head of the commission Admiral Walker, who has been prominent as chairman of the investigating commission which reported upon canal routes. The other names are: Gen. George W. Davis; William Barclay Parsons and Prof. William H. Burr, both of New York; Benjamin M. Harrod, of Louisiana; Carl Ewald Grunsky, of California, and Frank J. Hecker, of Michigan. We publish elsewhere in this number an article by Mr. Walter Wellman characterizing the members of this commission and discussing in a preliminary way the practical work that the commission will have before it. It was announced last month that the commission would sail for Panama on the 29th of March, to spend a few weeks looking over the ground. Excepting Mr. Hecker, who is a business man, the commissioners are all members of the engineering profession. They believe that a prompt application of sanitary science will make the Isthmus of Panama as healthy as Havana was made several years ago by like methods on the

is reported as saying that the French company has now eight hundred men at work in the Culbra cut, and that this work will go on without any cessation at all when our government comes into control. He predicts that the number of workmen will be rapidly increased until an army of thirty or forty thousand laborers is employed. These, he says, will include blacks from Jamaica and coolies from China. It will be machinery, however, rather than coolies, that will have to bear the chief brunt of the Panama excavation.

Congress and the Postal Frauds. On March 12, Speaker Cannon appointed a committee of seven members of Congress in connection with the Post-Office scandals. The creation of this special commission had resulted from an extraordinary sensation in the House, attended by scenes and utterances of a highly hysterical nature. In the original Bristow report of last November, reference had been made to improprieties on the part of members of Congress in such matters as the hiring of post-office quarters in various towns and the securing of increased allowances for clerk hire and the like. August W. Machen, superintendent of the division of salaries and allowances in the Post-Office Department, had late in February been convicted and sentenced, after a long trial, on charges of defrauding the Government. Post-Office affairs were under partisan debate in the House, and a Democratic member from Virginia had brought forward a resolution in favor of the appointment of a Congressional committee to investigate the whole conduct of the Post-Office Department, on the ground that the administration's own investigation had not been thorough. This debate took such a turn as to bring to the front the allusions made by Mr. Bristow to the relations of members of Congress with the guilty Machen; and hence there arose a demand for names and cases. Mr. Overstreet, the chairman of the Post-Office Committee, was finally impelled to ask the Postmaster-General for such data as had been gathered in the course of the investigation which would justify the allusions made by Mr. Bristow. Mr. Overstreet's insistence was successful, and a mass of material was furnished to the committee. This documentary information, in turn, was printed by the committee and given to the House.

Charges by Wholesale. To their astonishment and dismay, more than one hundred and forty Representatives and Senators found their names mentioned in this report under circumstances which seemed to charge them with having been guilty of impropriety or something

HON. JESSE OVERSTREET, OF INDIANA.
(Chairman of the Postal Committee.)

worse. Intense excitement followed the reading of this document, and the denunciations on the floor of the House of those responsible for having compiled the material was in language more violent and unrestrained, perhaps, than any ever before used in the history of Congress. So needless and so useless was most of the information gathered in this report that it would seem to have been a censurable offense ever to have sifted it out and brought it together. The members of Congress, as a body, are men of remarkable probity. A very few, perhaps, took advantage of the approachability of the rascals in high posts like Beavers and Machen to obtain for themselves or for their constituents favors, at the expense of the Government, which they knew to be improper. But where such cases were really flagrant, it is strongly believed at Washington that there are no records to implicate the guilty Congressmen. Such men did not write letters, but always went in person to the officials with whom they dealt.

The Obvious Explanation. There are 390 members of the House of Representatives, and there are in the United States over 74,000 post-offices, an average of about 190 to each Congressional district. Every Congressman's mail is burdened with letters relating to the post-office affairs of his district, excepting such members as represent large urban constituencies. It be-

comes necessary for the members to communicate very frequently with the officials of the Postal Department on affairs arising in their respective districts. With a few exceptions, the worst that can possibly be said of Congressmen is that their motives for trying to oblige their constituents are so strong as to lead them to concur in requests about the merits of which they have not fully convinced themselves,—thus throwing upon the postal officials all the burden of investigating and perhaps refusing. But this is no new state of things. It dates back to the very beginnings. It is not this that the country has been interested in or has cared to consider just now. Since the original Bristow investigation was devoted to an inquiry into the department itself, it would have been better if the allusions to members of Congress had been wholly omitted. But Mr. Bristow's work was thoroughgoing and excellent, and it has already resulted in the conviction of several officials of high standing. It is to be remembered that in the famous Star Route frauds, and in the equally famous whiskey-tax frauds, nobody was ever punished.

*From the
Serious to
the Trivial.*

With such serious business on hand as the real work of finding out and punishing the Post-Office criminals, it was much to be regretted that this comparatively trivial mass of information about the Congressmen should have been brought together, as if it bore some important relation to that drastic work of exposure and reform. It is not strange that the Congressmen were exasperated. The greater part of them are candidates for renomination, and the conventions will be held within a few weeks. They do not like to be put upon the defensive by having their names associated with those of convicted criminals. It is not likely, indeed, that serious harm will result in many cases; but there will be widespread annoyance, and consequent resentment. The present session of Congress ought not to be protracted; and an early adjournment was generally predicted, until this postal investigation came up. As

HON. SAMUEL W. M'CALL, OF
MASSACHUSETTS.

(Of the special committee on
'postal charges'.)

matters stand, of course, every member whose name was mentioned in the report will insist upon having his case taken up and completed by the committee before he goes home to face his constituents. The investigation will probably proceed very rapidly, but nobody can yet guess how long it will take. The members of the investigating committee are Messrs. McCall, of Massachusetts; Hitt, of Illinois; Burton, of Ohio; Metcalf, of California; McDermott, of New Jersey; Bartlett, of Georgia; and Richardson, of Alabama. The committee is entitled to confidence, and it began its work without delay.

*Cannon's
Popularity.*

The most notable incident of the remarkable discussion precipitated by the report, on March 11, grew out of an impassioned speech by the Hon. William Alden Smith, of Michigan. Mr. Smith is well

known as a most excellent and high-minded Representative. He is exceedingly jealous, however, of the prerogatives and reputation of the body to which he belongs. He believes that the members of the House of Representatives are not treated with due consideration in the executive departments. He regarded the report in question as a serious affront to

HON. WILLIAM ALDEN SMITH,
OF MICHIGAN.

the House, and in the course of his very eloquent speech he eulogized Speaker Cannon and expressed the hope that he would in the future be called to the Presidency. Mr. Smith is a very good friend of President Roosevelt, and had no thought of putting the Speaker in nomination for this year. The mood of the House was excitable, however, and the applause for Speaker Cannon was—to quote the bracketed characterization of the *Congressional Record*—"loud, long-continued, and enthusiastic."

*Mormonism
on the Rack.*

At the Senate end of the Capitol there was going on, last month, an investigation that awakened more interest throughout the country than among the Senators themselves. This was the contest before the Committee on Privileges and Elections regarding the fitness of Mr. Reed Smoot, of Utah, for the place in the Senate to which he had been

elected by the Utah Legislature. Mr. Smoot is one of the apostles of the Mormon Church. It is admitted by his opponents that he is not and has not been a polygamist. It is charged, however, that polygamous practices are continued and sanctioned by the highest authorities of this church, in disregard of the constitution and laws of Utah and the agreements under which that State was admitted to the Union. It is declared that the Mormon hierarchy is in effect a law-breaking and law-defying conspiracy, and that no member of that hierarchy is therefore fit to be seated as a member of the United States Senate. While much of the testimony before the committee has seemed to wander somewhat far from the precise points to be established, it has all borne, in a manner very interesting to the country at large, upon Mormon beliefs, methods, and practices. It was a remarkable and humiliating experience to have the highest officials of the Mormon Church, summoned as witnesses, testifying frankly that they were themselves continuing in polygamous practices, in violation, not only of the law of the State, but also of the present law of the Church which they themselves absolutely dominate. The feeling among the women of the country has been greatly aroused by all this testimony, and the Senate committee has been deluged with petitions against the seating of Mr. Smoot. The committee, however, must act in a strictly judicial capacity.

From the *American* (New York).

JOSEPH F. SMITH, PRESIDENT OF THE MORMON CHURCH.
(As he appeared at the investigation last month.)

Questions
Involved.

There are plenty of men who are by no means sure that Smoot can properly be excluded who are thoroughly convinced that Utah ought not to have been admitted as a State. The Mormon Church is in politics, and its political action is controlled by its president and the group of high officials. What manner of men the president and other leaders of Mormonism are, is now better known to the country than ever before. With the Mormon Church repudiating immoral practices and concerning itself with purely religious affairs, the country could not interfere or find fault. But when an organization such as that which President Smith controls attempts, under the guise of ecclesiastical and religious control, to dominate politics and to nullify law, the people of the United States will not take a very lenient view. The Senate has a full and final right to judge of the qualifications of its own members. If it should decide that, in view of the present character of the Mormon hierarchy and its falsity to the terms upon which Utah was admitted, it prefers not to allow a Mormon apostle to sit as a Senator, making laws for the whole people of the United States, nobody can call in question its right to act upon that preference. The hearing will have served a useful end.

From the *American* (New York).

SENATOR REED SMOOT, OF UTAH.

*The Case
Against
Smoot.*

The interest so widely shown by women's organizations in the Smoot case is plainly due to their moral attitude against polygamy. Many of these good people who have not followed the case closely have continued to assert that Mr. Smoot himself is a polygamist,—a sheer invention, which no one at Washington connected with the case against Smoot has ever thought of bringing forward. Simmered down, the real attack upon Smoot can be stated in this way: Present-day Mormonism is an immoral and quasi-criminal conspiracy, held together, on the part of its leaders, by oaths incompatible with loyalty to the Constitution and Government of the United States; for which reason no professing Mormon, and especially no high ruler of the Mormon organization, ought to be allowed to sit in either House of Congress. If Smoot be excluded, it must be upon some such ground as this. It is not likely that Congress, having admitted a Mormon State to the Union, will now go so far as to hold that Mormons may not represent their State in Congress. Undoubtedly, however, Congress will henceforth, in all cases, exclude men known to be polygamists. Furthermore, whenever it can be unmistakably shown that apostles or rulers in the Mormon Church, even though not polygamists, have been guilty of performing the ceremony in polygamous marriages, or otherwise of encouraging or condoning polygamy, it is scarcely likely that henceforth they will be seated in Congress, even though in their own cases monogamists or celibates.

*Woman
Suffrage
In Colorado.*

Another Western topic of the past few weeks has been of much interest to women,—this also lying in the field of politics and morals. It relates to the actual working of woman suffrage in Colorado, the most important State where such suffrage exists. As recorded in our issue for last month, Mr. Shafroth, who had for several terms represented a Denver district in the House, resigned his seat on February 15, having become convinced that his opponent, Mr. Robert W. Bonyng, was legally elected. Mr. Bonyng, the defeated Republican candidate, had contested the seat, and had brought overwhelming evidence to show that Mr. Shafroth's election was due to shameless and extensive bribery, repeating, and other forms of election fraud. Perceiving that the case against him was overwhelming, Mr. Shafroth avoided being unseated by resigning. He was not regarded as having been personally responsible for the election crimes which had been committed in Denver by his party. The question has since arisen to what extent woman suffrage is

responsible for the fearfully depraved condition of Denver politics. The evidence in the contest brought to light numerous sensational and shocking instances of women as bribe-givers and bribe-takers, as hired repeaters, as dishonest election officers, and so on. Yet it is the general testimony that by far the greater part of the political corruption and dishonesty of Denver is due to men; and Mr. Shafroth himself, and many other reputable persons, express the opinion that upon the whole the political life of Colorado has been better rather than worse for the enfranchisement of women. The experiment in Colorado cannot as yet, however, be regarded as convincing one way or the other. The full exposure of these frauds in Denver will have served a valuable purpose. Such uncovering of misdeeds should not dishearten anybody. It is a sign of health and vigor in the body politic when evils are exposed and faced, as in the case of the postal frauds and the recent successful attacks upon municipal and political corruption in various cities and States.

*The Pension
Question.*

Some weeks ago, it was currently reported that a service-pension bill would be passed by Congress in the present session and approved by President Roosevelt. Seventeen years ago, President Cleveland vetoed a modified form of service-pension measure. The general theory of pension grants under existing laws has been that they should be made to men able to prove disabilities originating in the period of military service. The later principle of the "dependent" pension act of 1890 is that an old soldier, not able to earn a living and without other means of support, may have government aid. The principle of the "service" pension is that everybody who took part in a specified war shall be entitled to go on the pension rolls; but this principle may be modified by the fixing of a certain age line, or by other requirements. There are now about one million pensioners on the rolls. The cost to the country of paying military pensions has for a number of years averaged about one hundred and forty million dollars a year. Doubtless, through false testimony there have at times been a good many names improperly placed on the rolls. The percentage of these to the whole number, however, must be extremely small. It has naturally been almost impossible, in the case of broken-down old men applying for pensions thirty years after the end of the war, to determine to what extent their present disabilities have been derived from injuries or hardships incurred in the period of military service. A simple and plain method of granting pensions has long been needed.

Reasons that were valid against a service pension for Civil War veterans twenty years ago might well have lost much of their force in the subsequent lapse of time. Thus, men who came out of the Civil

Pension Office justifies him in regarding old age as of itself a disability fairly within the meaning of the law, and the Secretary of the Interior and President Roosevelt have approved of this construction.

The matter became public through an official order, dated March 15. This order makes it clear that the new ruling is merely a development of methods in applying the existing enactment of 1890. It has met with so much severe criticism in certain newspapers, some of which have wholly misinterpreted it, that it seems well to reprint the exact text of the order, together with the preamble that accompanied it. The document is as follows:

Whereas, The act of June 27, 1890, as amended, provides that a claimant shall "be entitled to receive a pension not exceeding \$12 per month and not less than \$5 per month, proportionate to the degree of inability to earn a support, and in determining such inability each and every infirmity shall be duly considered, and the aggregate of the disabilities shown to be rated;" and

Whereas, Old age is an infirmity, the average nature and extent of which the experience of the Pension Bureau has established with reasonable certainty: and

Whereas, By act of Congress in 1887, when thirty-nine years had elapsed after the Mexican War, all soldiers of said war who were over sixty-two years of age were placed on the pension roll; and

Whereas, Thirty-nine years will have elapsed on April 13, 1904, since the Civil War, and there are many survivors over sixty-two years of age; now, therefore, ordered:

1. In the adjudication of pension claims under said act of June 27, 1890, as amended, it shall be taken and considered as an evidential fact, if the contrary does not appear, and if all other legal requirements are properly met, that when a claimant has passed the age of sixty-two years he is disabled one-half in ability to perform manual labor, and is entitled to be rated at \$6 per month; after 65 years, at \$8 per month; after 68 years, at \$10 per month, and after 70 years, at \$12 per month.

2. Allowance at higher rate not exceeding \$12 per month will continue to be made as heretofore where disability other than age shows condition of disability to perform manual labor.

3. This order shall take effect April 13, 1904, and shall not be deemed retroactive. The former rules of the office fixing the minimum and maximum at 65 and 75 years, respectively, are hereby modified as above.

Various Views of the Effect.

Mr. Sulloway, of New Hampshire, chairman of the Committee on Invalid Pensions, whose service-pension bill was explained in these pages last month, approves of the department order, and is of opinion that it will not at present add more than three or four million dollars a year to the present sum total of pension expenditures. Some of the critics of the order, on the other hand,

HON. EUGENE F. WARR, OF KANSAS.
(Commissioner of Pensions.)

War at the age of twenty-five are now just sixty-four years of age; while they were only forty-seven years old when President Cleveland vetoed the bill to which we have referred. The present commissioner of pensions, Mr. Ware, is a very practical man. He is also a man of force and character, capable of broad views and resolute actions. It seems that his study of the pension situation created by the existing laws, when applied to the survivors of a war that ended thirty-nine years ago, has convinced him that the enactment of a service-pension law by Congress is unnecessary. He finds that, in practice, old age produces a state of disability which in the case of an impoverished veteran procures a pension under the "dependent" act of 1890 by the time the age of sixty-two is reached. He is doubtless also of the opinion that to do away with some of the red tape which has been heretofore employed would help to deliver both the Pension Bureau and the decrepit veterans from some needless cost, delay, and trouble. He has therefore reached the conclusion that without further legislation the experience of the

go so far as to assert that it will add sixty million dollars to the pension bill and bring the total outlay for that purpose up to two hundred million dollars a year. The *New York Times* and certain other papers have dealt with the matter as one of gross executive usurpation of the law-making power. A careful study of the exact wording of the order, however, taken in connection with the methods already in use for applying the act of 1890, would not seem to justify the indignant criticisms of these newspapers. One practical effect of the order was expected to be the dropping of the several service-pension bills that were pending in Congress, and an earlier adjournment than might otherwise have been hoped for.

*Our
Great Navy.*

Appropriation bills were well advanced last month, and the Republican managers in both houses were determined to bring the session to an end at the earliest possible date. Some of these men were hoping to adjourn as early as April 15; but it was the general opinion that the session could not end until some time in the early part of May. The naval appropriation bill amounts, in round figures, to \$97,000,000. For three years previous, the navy bill has averaged about \$80,000,000. Until five years ago, we had for a decade been spending from \$20,000,000 to \$30,000,000 a year upon the navy. It was stated in the debate that since our navy was begun, in 1883, we have spent upon it \$760,000,000. It was also estimated that it will cost \$130,000,000 more to complete the ships now under construction. This year's bill orders one new battleship, two armored cruisers, and a number of smaller vessels. The increasing cost of the navy is due, not solely to the construction of new ships, but also to the maintenance of an increasing establishment. Thus, in 1885 we had 8,250 men and boys on the naval lists, not including officers, while we now have 34,000. The payroll item alone has increased from \$7,000,000 to \$20,000,000. We have now twelve battleships in service, and fourteen more building or authorized. We are also building a number of armored cruisers of great size and power, superior in these respects to our smaller battleships.

*An Agent
of Peace.*

It was responsibly asserted in the Senate that in tonnage our navy is already third among the powers, only England and France being ahead of it, and that in efficiency it will in the near future be second. While there is some dissent from the policy of rapid naval expansion, it is remarkable how great is the general acquiescence in this development,

and how free from partisanship or sectionalism is the belief that our country can afford and ought to have a very strong navy. It cannot be too often pointed out that we should have avoided the war with Spain if our naval programme had been a little more advanced. We were regarded as far down the list of naval powers in 1898. European experts thought the Spanish navy superior to ours. Spain would have evacuated Cuba without fighting us if we had had a few more ships. Our growing naval efficiency has caused European powers to give up all thought of making imperial acquisitions in Latin America. It is our navy that has saved us and Colombia from a costly and unfortunate war over the Panama situation. It is, moreover, the prospective naval power of the United States that has enabled us to assume sovereign authority over the Panama Canal strip without any question on the part of the great commercial nations of the old world.

*The Hague
Decision.*

It was, furthermore, an enhanced respect for the United States, due in no small part to the efficiency of our navy, that made it possible for us to persuade England and Germany to abandon their blockade of Venezuela and to allow all questions at issue to be referred to arbitration. All claims against that government were submitted to the judgment of impartial umpires, and the comparatively unimportant question as to the order in which the debts should be paid was brought before the Hague tribunal. That case has now been decided. It is held by the court that the powers which went to the expense of using coercive methods, and which voluntarily abandoned their position of advantage, are entitled to first payment. While there is much to be said on both sides, and while our government argued strongly the other way, there is no reason to be dissatisfied with the verdict. The Hague tribunal has further ordained that the Government of the United States shall be charged with overseeing the enforcement of the judgment against Venezuela. This of itself is a very valuable recognition of the Monroe Doctrine,—a doctrine, by the way, which in its present-day application must rest for its validity chiefly upon the naval strength of the United States. A certain portion of the custom-house receipts of Venezuela must be set aside for paying off the adjudicated foreign claims,—those of Germany, England, and Italy having priority. The claims of the other powers are equally good, but will earn interest a little longer before they are settled. In case of failure on Venezuela's part to live up to this arrangement, the United States will have to take

possession of the custom-houses and see the business through. We have every reason to be satisfied with the affair from beginning to end.

A Beneficent Power. It is our navy upon which the republic of Cuba relies with full confidence and certainty for immunity from all foreign aggression. The strong naval station we are developing at Guantanamo is for Cuba's benefit not less than for our own. The new republic of Panama will need some sort of a *gendarmerie*,—that is to say, a national military police force for keeping the peace; but it will need neither army nor navy, and has not provided, in its cabinet officers, for a minister either of war or of marine. It is our navy that affords the best assurance of peaceful development for the Philippine archipelago. Secretary Taft, since his return, has made a number of interesting speeches, notably one at New York, before the Ohio Society, explaining and justifying our Philippine policy. The sane and judicious thought of the country will be convinced by what Mr. Taft says regarding the present desirability of continuing our policy in the Philippines without declaration as to the ultimate destiny of those islands.

In the Philippines. Mr. Taft, as Secretary of War, among other things last month was endeavoring to persuade New York capitalists to invest \$40,000,000 in the building of necessary railroads for the development of Luzon, accepting from the Government a guarantee of 4 per cent. interest. He is hopeful of success, and believes that nothing would do so much for the Philippines as such a policy of internal improvements. Early in March, President Roosevelt and Secretary Taft, in accordance with a previous recommendation of the Philippine Commission, abrogated the so-called treaty with the Sultan of Sulu which was negotiated by General Bates in 1899. It is held that the Moros have not kept their part of the agreement, and they will henceforth come under the general laws and administration of the Philippines. Gen. Leonard Wood, as governor of the province of Moro, has had to do a good deal of fighting; but the worst seems to be over. On March 18, the long-contested promotion of General Wood to the rank of major-general was ratified in the Senate by a vote of 45 to 16. The vacancy in the Philippine Commission caused by the return of Mr. Taft has been filled by the appointment of Mr. W. Cameron Forbes, of Massachusetts, who is an experienced business man and is expected to take an interest in the proposed railways and other works of improvement for the progress of the islands.

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MR. W. CAMERON FORBES, OF MASSACHUSETTS.

(The new Philippine commissioner.)

California's Outlook. Many of the national and international topics of the day have a very special interest for the people of California and our Pacific coast. They, more than others, realize the momentous bearings upon our future of the great events that are taking place upon the opposite shores of the Pacific. The people of San Francisco justly believe that their city has a mighty future as a focus of general commerce and a cosmopolitan center of civilization. The San Francisco press and public have from the beginning followed the Russo-Japanese conflict with the keenest interest, and with exceptional intelligence. The Californians are not agreed in opinion as to the extent to which the Panama Canal will be of benefit to them. There is some adherence to the view that the canal will divert a great deal of traffic which would otherwise find a focus at San Francisco. The more prevalent opinion, however, is that such losses will be met by more than compensating gains. The astonishing diversity of natural resources with which California has been endowed finds new illustration from year to year. The present season has been the driest one on record, with the good result of showing how triumphantly that State can come through a

very severe test. The progress of irrigation, both in method and in extent, is remarkable. The fruit crop continues to grow in volume, value, and variety. Probably no other State has made such extensive preparation as California for an exhibit, at St. Louis, of the resources of its different portions. San Francisco has grown much in population since the census of 1900, and the recent advancement of Los Angeles is perhaps unequalled among American cities of its rank. With all its other endowments, California's greatest asset is its climate. The State offers almost unequalled inducements,—with its present unsatisfied demand for labor at high prices,—to new-comers of all classes; and it announces as its greatest need an access of desirable population. San Francisco is entering upon a series of important public improvements, as the result of plans initiated several years ago, and nearly \$20,000,000 will be expended.

*St. Louis
and the Fair.*

So much has been published regarding municipal misdeeds in St. Louis that there is danger that the country may have a totally false impression regarding that great interior city, on the eve of the opening of the largest world's fair ever undertaken. The fact is that we have in this country hardly any other city so handsomely and attractively built as St. Louis, and none in which the residential quarters are so conveniently and suitably distributed with reference to the business center. St. Louis is probably the best specimen we now have in the United States of a solidly built, symmetrically arranged, modern city of large size. The exposition is much further advanced toward completion than any other great exposition ever was upon the approach of the opening date. The impression that St. Louis will be without ample hotel accommodations for exposition visitors is not justified by the facts. Hotel rates are directly or indirectly a little higher always in an exposition period than at other times; but the vast and comfortable hotel that the exposition itself has built within the grounds will serve as a regulator of rates, and there are a number of admirable new hotels of permanent construction, besides others of a temporary character, to house the expected crowds. No other exposition has ever had so commodious a setting. A large part of the grounds consists of a beautiful grove on pleasant rising slopes, where everybody will be free to wander in the grateful shade. The spectacular effects of the exposition from the architectural standpoint will alone be worth a long journey to see. The energy and enthusiasm of the exposition management have inspired confidence, and at the inevitable critical

moment when more money was needed Congress made a loan of \$4,600,000, in February, to be repaid out of gate receipts. The great exhibition structures were completed many weeks ago, and exhibits have for some time past been arriving by the hundreds of carloads. The attractive separate headquarters of the various States and of foreign countries were being rushed to completion in February and March. We published a valuable article in our issue for December last on the wonderful Philippine exhibit, which occupies a large area and a special group of buildings. Especial interest will be felt in the Chinese exhibit; and the Japanese building and displays will certainly be a center of curious and admiring throngs.

*The Continu-
ance of
American
Prosperity.*

It is cheering to the St. Louis people to know that the country is entering upon another good business year. The effect of suspense and uncertainty on business conditions was, indeed, shown very concretely in the weeks preceding the Northern Securities decision. The hundreds of different securities bought and sold in the New York stock market, to the great majority of which the outcome of the famous railroad case could have no relation, all sagged in a dispiriting fashion, and the total transactions of a day on the exchange did not amount to the business transacted in a half-hour of the boom times three years ago. Immediately after the announcement of the Supreme Court's decision, the markets took on new vitality. With the curious habit of the Wall Street temperament, they acted as if the decision had been in favor of the railroad merger instead of against it. The quotations of securities rose throughout the entire list, including Northern Securities stock itself; and the volume of business resumed its normal proportions. This buoyant reaction was only for a moment discouraged by the suddenly announced failure of the cotton dealer who had been identified with the enormous and sensational rise in the price of cotton. This bold operator, cheered on by the enthusiastic South, and aided by indiscriminate speculation, had for many months led the rise of cotton to prices which had not been seen before for more than thirty years.

*In the South
and West.*

With his collapse came a drop of four cents a pound in a week, with a subsequent rally which confirmed the belief of the best observers that cotton would in spite of these flurries continue to bring the South prices that seem magnificent indeed compared with those of only a few years ago. In almost every field of business and industry, the

South and Southwest continue to be prosperous, showing none of the doubt concerning the financial and industrial future that has been developed in the East by the fall in the quotations of securities, and in the prices of steel and iron, and by the conventional uncertainties of a "Presidential year." So competent an observer as Mr. George Gould, after a lengthy tour of the Southwest, assures us that pessimism cannot be found in the region west of the Mississippi and south of St. Louis. Conditions in the East, too, are showing signs of improvement. Retail trade movements are free and copious, railroad earnings have not suffered much except in the months of unprecedented bad weather, and, most significant of all, the production and consumption of steel and iron are both increasing, though more significantly in the "finished forms" of the metal. The railroads, which require 2,500,000 tons of steel rails a year, are still backward buyers. When they are able to market their securities to better advantage, and thus feel easier in the pocket, it looks as if there would be at least a moderate resumption of prosperity in the steel and iron industry. An important sign of the betterment is seen in the large purchases of pig iron by the United States Steel Corporation from independent producers, and in the stiffening of prices for Southern iron in the crude forms.

A Bituminous-Coal Strike Averted. In the first days of March, it was feared that America might soon be facing a coal strike not less tremendous than the historic struggle of 1902-03. The bituminous-coal miners of Indiana, Illinois, Ohio, Iowa, and western Pennsylvania had refused to accept a reduction of 10 per cent. from the present wage scale, and there were preparations throughout the organization of the United Mine Workers for a bitter fight, beginning April 1. President John Mitchell and his colleagues finally succeeded in getting from the operators a compromise proposition, understood to be the ultimatum, providing for a wage reduction amounting to 5½ per cent., the new scale to go in force for two years. There was intense feeling in the organization for and against the acceptance of this arrangement. Mr. Mitchell openly advocated peace at this price. There was a feeling with many people, even among the miners, that business conditions justified some reduction in wages, and that a smaller cut could scarcely be hoped for. By dint of forceful and undismayed work on the part of President Mitchell and the conservative element of the mine workers, who pointed to the fact that wages in the bituminous mines had been rising since 1894, and that the great improvement had been attained by peaceful meth-

ods, a sentiment in favor of the compromise measure was aroused sufficient to win in the popular vote of the miners on March 15. The good fortune to the country and its orderly business in the prevention of this great struggle, and the saving to the two hundred thousand soft-coal miners, are no small thing, and call for hearty congratulations to the courageous and clear-seeing President Mitchell. This happy event removes from the horizon the one labor storm of national importance, although spring has brought its lesser disturbances, as usual. In New York, the building trades are again in a turmoil. No sooner had the housesmiths' troubles become fairly straightened out than the bricklayers struck in the middle of March, and threw the ironworkers out of employment as well. Unless the snarl is shortly untangled, anywhere from forty thousand to one hundred thousand men may be deprived of work. This strike started with the demand of the laborers for an eight-hour day and a uniform wage scale of thirty-five cents an hour.

American Sentiment About the War. The Japanese had the quick perception to see that the very fact of their being at war with Russia would give an added reason for their straining every nerve to be brilliantly represented at St. Louis. The Russians, unfortunately, felt that the preoccupation of war rendered it impossible to make any adequate display, and they accordingly changed their plans and relinquished the space which had been allotted to them. There was a widespread report that this withdrawal from the St. Louis exposition was the result of Russian ill-feeling on account of the general expressions in the United States of sympathy with Japan. It was carefully explained, however, by the Russian Government that this was not the case. It is entirely true that popular sympathy in the United States has been with Japan. On the other hand, it is not at all true that the feeling against Russia here is of a deep-seated or hostile character, except upon the part of those who for racial reasons deeply resent the persecution of the Jews as it culminated in the Kishineff massacre. The Czar is admired and respected, but is regarded as unable to give efficient direction to domestic government or foreign policy under the present bureaucratic system. It is believed here that if Russian diplomacy in the far East had been more business-like and straightforward, Japan's apprehensions could have been allayed, the war could have been averted, and Russian railroad and other interests could have been duly safeguarded. No possible appeal to the traditions of friendship between Russia and the United States can make the greater part of the

American people change the judgment they have formed as to the merits of the Eastern struggle.

Yet the American people heartily desire to maintain good relations between our government and that of the Czar. The supposition that the United States Government is a secret partner in the Anglo-Japanese alliance has not the slightest foundation in fact. The Russian authorities now frankly confess that they were mistaken in their first feeling that our government would be disposed, in favor of the Japanese, to strain somewhat its duties as a neutral. Much as they wish that Russia would reform and liberalize her domestic institutions,—treating Finns, Jews, Poles, Armenians, and all other elements of her population with equal justice,—most Americans have firm faith in the magnificent future of the great Slavonic nation. They also recognize with interest and satisfaction the splendid work that Russia has done in pacifying and civilizing Central Asia, and in opening up her Siberian empire. Russia's desire to reach the Pacific with ice-free ports is more readily comprehensible to the people of a continental country like ours than to anybody else. Most of us do not expect to see Russia permanently hemmed in, or driven far back, as a result of this war.

Our
Scrupulous
Neutrality.

The United States, indeed, has rendered a great service to Russia in securing world-wide adhesion to the doctrine that the neutrality and integrity of China are to be respected by both combatants. It was no meddling interference on the part of the United States that prompted this effort. The plan had its inception in a hint from the government of Germany, which is known to be in especial sympathy with Russia. The agreement limits the theater of hostilities to Korea and Manchuria. Our own opinion, frequently expressed in these pages, has long been that Russia is in Manchuria for purposes of upbuilding and civilization, and will permanently remain. It is true that certain gentlemen holding civil and military offices under the United States Government were recently quoted as expressing strong predilections in favor of the Japanese cause. Such remarks were not incompatible with the strictest observance of neutrality by our government; but they were irritating and inappropriate. In order to make perfectly plain our position, President Roosevelt, on March 10, issued a notable proclamation directing all officials—civil, military, and naval—to abstain from all acts or words that could give offense to either of the combatants. The

proclamation will stand as a fine example of the highest sort of international courtesy. It deplored the war, expressing hopes for its speedy end and for a small loss of life on either side. It was received with satisfaction in Russia, and helped to smooth away all misunderstandings.

The First
Blows in
the East.

Before reciting the few authentic facts in the war news of the second month, and summing up the general military and naval situation, it may be well to restate in half-a-dozen sentences the opening events of the war which were set forth at length in these pages last month. Hostilities between Russia and Japan opened on the afternoon of February 8, when the Japanese Admiral Uriu, with five cruisers and one torpedo craft, destroyed the Russian cruisers *Variag* and *Koriets* in the harbor of Chemulpho, Korea. On the evening of the same day, Admiral Togo, with the main Japanese fleet, consisting of six battleships, four cruisers, and a number of torpedo boats, defeated and partly destroyed the Russian fleet in Port Arthur, sinking two battleships, the *Czarevitch* and *Retvizan*, and the *Pallada*, one of the cruisers. In an engagement the next day all the remaining Russian vessels,—five battleships and five commerce destroyers,—were injured, another battleship, the *Poltava*, and the cruisers *Novik*, *Diana*, and *Askold* being penetrated by shells on or below the waterline. Subsequently, three Russian war vessels, the *Boyarin*, the *Yenesei*, and the *Skorri*, were sunk, reports differing as to whether they succumbed to Japanese guns or ran upon their own mines. Most of the accounts insist upon the latter version.

Another
Month of
the War.

Although every one seems to be advancing on the field of war except the newspaper correspondents (more than two hundred and fifty of them are detained at Russian and Japanese headquarters, awaiting the needed permission to go to the front), the military and naval situation has changed but little during the past month. Japan still counts her gains, and Russia her losses. Rapidly sketched, the actual events of the past month would be: several attacks on Port Arthur by Admiral Togo, in which three Russian vessels were put *hors de combat*; the Japanese bombardment of Vladivostok, and a number of minor engagements between the outposts of the opposing armies, advancing toward each other from opposite sides of the Yalu River. On February 24, Admiral Togo attempted to "bottle up" the Russian Port Arthur fleet by sending in five old steamers loaded with combustibles and explosives, which the Russians promptly sank in

the mouth of the harbor,—not, however, in such a position as effectually to block exit. A brisk fight ensued, the Russians finally taking shelter in the inner harbor, and the Japanese retiring. For more than a fortnight no actual hostilities took place, but on March 6 Admiral Togo's fleet of five battleships and two cruisers suddenly appeared within five miles of the fortifications of Vladivostok. A five-hours' bombardment inflicted a slight loss on the town, but failed to disclose what it is assumed the Japanese desired to find out; that is, the location of the four Russian cruisers and the exact range of the guns of the forts. On the 19th of March it was reported as a fact that Russia's much talked of Vladivostok squadron had at last made its way out of the harbor by blasting a channel through the ice with dynamite. It had gone, not even the correspondents knew whither, but presumably to join the Port Arthur fleet.

*The
Developing
Situation.*

The general situation in the fighting area, late in March, was about as follows: Port Arthur and its fleet were still blockaded by Admiral Togo, and its garrison was expecting a land attack in the rear. "There is no hope for us,—we must fight or die," was the announcement of General Stoessel to his garrison. General Kuropatkin, Russia's minister of war, who was early in March appointed active commander-in-chief of the military forces in Manchuria, was hurrying eastward and due to arrive at Mukden March 28, sending

GENERAL STOESEL.

(In command of the Russian troops at Port Arthur.)

forward frequent telegraphic injunctions to Commander Stoessel, at Port Arthur, to "hold the fort" until he should arrive. Eighty or ninety thousand Japanese, with their base at Ping-Yang, in Korea, are assembled south of the Yalu, and Russian forces variously estimated at from fifty to two hundred thousand are gradually concentrating at Liao-Yang, on the Eastern Chinese Railroad, between Port Arthur and Mukden. These forces are approaching each other as rapidly as conditions of climate and supplies will permit. Such, with a multitude of opinions and conjectures on the part of correspondents and military experts as to the plans of each, are the facts of the situation.

*Russia's
Tremendous
Task.*

One of the German political weeklies announces that Russia's most successful commanders, so far, have been General January, General February, and General March, and adds that General Disease and General Starvation will soon fight for Japan on the Russian side. Climatic and geographical conditions are playing a more important part in the conflict than the Western world realizes. The severity of the winter, which has blocked the harbors with ice, and the terrible condition of the roads in Korea, have fought against both

AN ICE-BREAKER LEADING A RUSSIAN FLEET OUT OF
VLADIVOSTOK HARBOR.

From *L'Illustration*.

LAYING THE RAILS OF THE TRANS-SIBERIAN RAILWAY ON THE ICE ACROSS LAKE BAIKAL.

sides, and it may be several weeks yet before the armies can advantageously take the field. It must not be forgotten that Vladivostok is farther from Moscow than San Francisco is from Boston, and that the field of operations is connected with its base of supplies by a single track railway seven thousand miles in length, hastily built, interrupted by a thirty-mile-wide lake, with trains which cannot be run faster than eighteen or twenty miles an hour, in constant danger of interruption by enemies. Commenting on the assumption of Russia's numerical superiority, an English military expert declares that the Czar's power is like the camel which must go through the eye of a needle, and the larger the camel the harder it will be for him to get through. The Trans-Siberian Railway is the needle's eye. Various claims that Russia is gathering an army of from one hundred thousand to four hundred thousand men must be subjected to the one inevitable test,—the capacity of the Trans-Siberian railroad to transport troops and supplies.

*Slow Work
and a Long
War.* German experts insist that the railroad at its full capacity cannot possibly carry provisions and war munitions for more than two hundred thousand men,

and consequently, with Port Arthur "bottled up," Vladivostok practically blockaded, and Korea in the hands of the Japanese, two hundred thousand men is the maximum force Russia can maintain in Manchuria. Extraordinary precautions are being taken to guard the railroad from attacks by Japanese and Chinese would-be dynamiters. The line has already been cut in a number of places, and the Cossack guard all along from Tomsk to Vladivostok has been doubled. The testimony of observers who know Siberian conditions is almost unanimous that the war will be of long duration. Prof. G. Frederick Wright, author of "Asiatic Russia," whose article on "Russia's Civilizing Work in Asia" (page 427 of this issue) is the result of a long acquaintance with Asiatic Russian conditions, writes to us:

The preparation and resources of the contending powers and the physical geography of the seat of war are such that a decisive engagement is not likely to take place at the outset. The war will not be ended in one year, or in two, but, in all likelihood, will be drawn out to a considerable length, until both parties are weary, when the compromise which should have been made at the outset will be effected, securing to Japan larger liberties than she has had, and to Russia an unquestioned title to an ice-free outlet upon the Pacific coast, and for each a larger measure of respect for the other.

*Changes in
the Russian
Plans.*

Russia has been forced to disregard Abraham Lincoln's advice: "Never swap horses while crossing a stream."

Admiral Alexieff's blunder in assuming that Japan was only "bluffing" and would never come to the point of actual hostilities has been so costly that a change of the personnel in the command at the front has already been determined upon; and, while he will remain nominally in command, the active operations will be under General Kuropatkin and Vice-Admiral Makaroff. European military critics severely condemn Admiral Alexieff for dividing his forces and placing them at such widely separated points as Port Arthur, Vladivostok, and Chemulpho Bay, where they could not be properly supported. General Dragomiroff, moreover, the veteran of the Russo-Turkish War, joins in these criticisms, and claims that Port Arthur and Newchwang will eventually have to be evacuated. The Russian forces, he says, should fall back to Harbin or some other central railroad point

ADMIRAL MAKAROFF.

(In command of the Russian navy in the far East.)

to the present is the surprise that Japan has given to the world by her rejection of the old, tortuous methods of Oriental diplomacy and her adoption of the straight, frank, simple Western way of dealing.

*At St.
Petersburg.*

There is evidently confusion in the councils of the Czar at St. Petersburg, and even the pro-Russian *Figaro*, of Paris, makes no effort to minimize the demoralization in the Czar's official family. Report has it that Count Lamsdorff, the minister of foreign affairs, who has all along opposed the war, will shortly follow Minister de Witte into retirement. General Sakaroff succeeds General Kuropatkin as war minister, and Vice-Admiral Makaroff, the famous "ice-breaker," is now in active command of the naval forces of the Czar in Asiatic waters. Makaroff's assumption of the offensive, and Kuropatkin's vigorous handling of forces,—even from the railroad, along which he is hurrying by special train to Mukden,—would seem to indicate that Russian leaders are beginning to recover from the stupor of the first blow. The Russian soldier has long been known as the best "bad-weather fighter" in the world, and as a cavalryman the Cossack has few equals and perhaps no superiors. So far as the Russian plan could be discerned in the

PROFESSOR GEORGE FREDERICK WRIGHT, OF OBERLIN.
(See Article on page 427.)

until sufficient strength for a general, irresistible advance has been gathered. Alexieff, as a negotiator, assumed that the Japanese, like all Orientals, were claiming much more than they would insist upon having. He was doing the same, meaning to "knock off" items in return for concessions from the other side. The Japanese, however, made their minimum demands at the start. The Mikado meant exactly what he said. He asked for what he intended to get. One of the really dramatic developments of the war up

peror himself has declared, is now one of the nation's heroes. The national sentiment is solidly behind the war, although the popular leaders and most of the serious journals admit the gravity of the situation. Financially, the Mikado's people are one. The fifty-million-dollar loan,—the first portion of the two-hundred-and-fifty-million-dollar war fund which Japan proposes to raise,—has been subscribed four times over by volunteer subscriptions. Thus, a second time Japan has astonished the world with an internal money-raising ability equal to that of France after the war of 1870. Nine years ago, the Japanese raised \$112,000,000 within their own island to prosecute the war against China, and journals of the capital insist that this feat will be more than equaled during the present war. When the Parliament was opened, on March 20, it was seen that the political opposition had been, for the time being, completely reconciled, and the venerable Marquis Ito had gone as a special commissioner to represent Japan in Korea. Although the details are not given, the fact is confirmed that a treaty between the Emperor of Korea and the Japanese Government gives the Mikado a virtual protectorate over the Land of the Morning Calm. To keep what remains of the Russian fleet from rendering any effective service, and to slowly but safely

GENERAL SAKAROFF.

(The new Russian Minister of War.)

middle of March, it is to pour troops over the Korean border in such numbers as to overwhelm any opposition that Japan can offer. Alexieff expects that he will have to fight China also before long. The government at Peking has refused to disavow the Chunchus brigands who are causing trouble along the Mongolian border, and there are evidences that each Japanese success is encouraging the Chinese in their opposition to Russia. Russia's financial resources seem to be sounder than was at first generally believed. There is \$500,000,000 in gold and notes in reserve in the Imperial Bank, and efforts are being made to raise loans in European capitals. Strong pressure has been brought upon the Czar to reinstate Serge de Witte, the former minister of finance, but M. V. N. Kokovzoff has finally been chosen. Opinion is not agreed as to this new minister. He has, however, had considerable experience in fiscal matters, and the pro-Russian French press believes him to be equal to the task of war treasurer.

*Japanese
Unity and
Enthusiasm.* Japan has the immense advantage of having started right. Her first leaders in council and camp have justified her faith in them, and Admiral Togo, the Em-

RUSSIAN SOLDIERS' TENT AND DUG-OUT BIVOUAC IN MANCHURIA.

From the *Illustrated London News*.

A COSACK GUARD AT THE SUNGARI BRIDGE OF THE TRANS-SIBERIAN RAILWAY.

push a finely equipped army northward from Korea to meet the Russians, probably a little north of the Yalu River, is evidently the plan of the Japanese general staff, which, the latest reports tell us, has arrived at Ping-Yang, Korea, and made that city its base.

The Gathering of the News. The splendid organization of the news-gathering force sent from Europe and this country to the far East, of which we gave an account last month, has not as yet been enabled to bring its full equipment into play. The removal of the censorship from the Associated Press cable news service by the Russian Government has helped matters somewhat. The matter of Russian censorship is treated in a special article in the REVIEW this month (see page 457). The censorship in Japan is rigidly maintained. According to the official government journal, the government regulations are, in substance: applications for permission to accompany the armed forces must come through a consul or minister; they must name the paper represented; they can be issued only to trained journalists, whose qualifications, as well as those of their interpreters and servants, must be passed upon by the military authorities, to whom the war correspondents are subject. Correspondents may not wear the na-

tive Japanese costume; must wear a badge with the name of the journal they represent; must not send cipher messages, and nothing whatever can be dispatched without editorial revision and approval by the military staff.

Meagreness of Information. Complete secrecy has so far attended the development of the Japanese plan of campaign, and only one Japanese newspaper, the *Chuwo*, of Tokio, has ventured to publish any information about the movements of the Japanese troops. The difficulty in determining the truth of any item of news from the front is illustrated by a recent report from Russia to the effect that three Japanese officers were hanged by the Russians for attempting to blow up the bridge over the Sungari River. Dispatches from St. Petersburg give the names and titles of the Japanese officers, while official announcements from Tokio assert positively that no such names are on the Japanese army list, and that the men hanged were probably Chinese coolies. The major part of the news which has been confirmed comes through English sources, particularly from the able correspondents of the *London Times*. Mr. Melville Stone's success in securing from the Czar the removal of the censorship from Associated Press dispatches has resulted in excellent service from St. Petersburg.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From February 17 to March 20, 1904.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

February 18.—In the Senate, Mr. Spooner (Rep., Wis.) speaks in defense of President Roosevelt's Panama policy.... The House passes the fortifications appropriation bill.

February 20.—The Senate debates the Panama Canal question.... The House considers the naval appropriation bill.

February 23.—The Senate, by a vote of 71 to 17, ratifies the Panama Canal treaty... The House votes a grant of \$636,500 to the Charleston, S. C., Navy Yard.

February 24.—The Senate considers the agricultural appropriation bill.

February 25.—The Senate passes the agricultural and legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation bills.

February 26.—The House passes the naval appropriation bill.

February 27.—The House passes 200 private pension bills.

February 29.—The House considers the District of Columbia appropriation bill.

March 1.—The Senate passes a bill providing for the transportation of government stores in American vessels; Mr. Gallinger (Rep., N. H.) introduces a bill increasing the salaries of legislative and executive officers.

March 2.—The Senate considers the Philippine shipping bill.... The House devotes the day to District of Columbia legislation.

March 3.—The Senate considers the naval appropriation bill.... The House passes the District of Columbia appropriation bill and takes up the Indian appropriation bill.

March 5.—The House passes the Indian appropriation bill.

March 7.—The Senate passes the naval appropriation bill.... The report on postal frauds involves many members of the House in illegal practices; the House passes a resolution looking to a beef-trust investigation.

March 8.—The Senate adopts an amendment to the army appropriation bill consolidating the adjutant-general's office and the Record and Pension Division under the title of the Military Secretary's Office of the War Department.... The House passes 92 private claim bills.

March 9.—The Senate passes the army appropriation bill and the Frye shipping bill.... The report of Assistant Postmaster-General Bristow is debated in the House.

March 12.—The Senate ratifies the treaty with King Menelik.... Speaker Cannon appoints the following committee to investigate the postal charges concerning members of the House: McCall, of Massachusetts; Hitt, of Illinois; Burton, of Ohio, and Metcalf, of California, Republicans, and McDermott, of New Jersey; Bartlett, of Georgia, and Richardson, of Alabama, Democrats.

March 15.—The Senate passes the fortifications appropriation bill.... The House debates the post-office appropriation bill.

March 17.—The Senate passes the bill introduced by Mr. Quarles (Rep., Wis.), to repeal the timber and stone act.... The House continues consideration of the post-office appropriation bill.

March 18. The Senate, in executive session, confirms the nomination of Leonard Wood to be a major-general; in open session, a resolution calling for information as to the cost of a service pension is adopted.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

February 17.—Louisiana Republicans (white) nominate Gen. W. J. Behan for governor, and adopt a resolution favoring Theodore Roosevelt's nomination for President.

February 20.—Perry S. Heath resigns the secretaryship of the Republican National Committee.

February 24.—South Carolina Republicans choose Roosevelt delegates to the national convention.... Re-

publican members of the Ohio Legislature nominate Representative Charles Dick to succeed the late Senator Hanna.

February 29.—President Roosevelt nominates the following members of the Isthmian Canal Commission: Rear-Admiral John G. Walker, U.S.N., retired, chairman; Maj.-Gen. George W. Davis, U.S.A., retired; William Barclay Parsons, of New York; William H. Burr, of New York; Benjamin M. Harrod, of Louisiana; Carl Ewald Grunsky, of California, and Frank J. Hecker, of Michigan (see page 490).

SENATOR DAVID WARK, OF NEW BRUNSWICK.

(On February 19, Senator Wark celebrated his one-hundredth birthday. He is now actively engaged in his duties as a member of the Canadian Senate, and is believed to be the oldest legislator in the world.)

March 2.—President Joseph F. Smith, of the Mormon Church, begins his testimony before the United States Senate Committee on Privileges and Elections in the investigation into the charges against Senator Reed Smoot, of Utah.... The Ohio Legislature elects Representative Charles Dick to succeed the late Senator Hanna in the United States Senate for both the short and the long term.

March 7.—President Roosevelt sends to Congress the report of Charles J. Bonaparte and Clinton Rogers Woodruff on affairs in Indian Territory.

March 9.—The New York Legislature elects the members of the new Board of Regents, with Dr. Andrew S. Draper as commissioner of education under the new law.

March 10.—Rhode Island Democrats choose uninstructed delegates to the national convention.

March 14.—The United States Supreme Court, by a vote of 5 to 4, decides that the Northern Securities Company is an illegal combination, Chief Justice Fuller and Justices White, Peckham, and Holmes dissenting.

March 16.—Under a ruling of Commissioner of Pensions Ware, all Civil War veterans sixty-two years of age are entitled to pensions.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT FOREIGN.

MR. W. I. RAPONOFF.

(Director of the Moscow Conservatory and conductor of the Imperial Russian Musical Society, who is now in this country.)

February 18.—The Sprigg cabinet at Cape Town resigns office, and Dr. Jameson undertakes the formation of a ministry....The British Government issues a supplementary army estimate of £2,700,000 (\$13,500,000).

February 20.—Dr. Jameson completes the formation of the Cape Colony ministry.

February 23.—During a debate in the German Reichstag, the expense incurred on the German troops in China is severely criticized.

February 24.—The British naval estimates amount to \$184,445,000,—an increase of \$12,160,000 over the estimates for the preceding year....The budget committee of the German Reichstag makes reductions in the estimates for the German force in China.

March 8.—In the French Chamber of Deputies, the proposal to refer the education bill to committee and permit the government to exercise the power,—conferred upon it in 1901,—to close religious schools by decree, is rejected by a majority of 40....The Grand Trunk Railroad shareholders ratify the agreement with the Canadian Government for a transcontinental line.

March 11.—The Canadian Parliament meets.

March 12.—The British census of the Indian Empire gives the population as 294,361,056, of whom 231,399,507 are in British territory.

March 15.—The French Chamber of Deputies, by a vote of 282 to 271, adopts an amendment extending the period of suppression of congregational teaching from

five to ten years....The British ministry is defeated in the House of Commons by a majority of 11, the Irish party uniting with the Liberals.

March 20.—The Japanese Diet meets at Tokio.

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

February 19.—The Japanese cruiser *Akitushima* arrives at Shanghai. The Russian gunboat *Mandjur* remains anchored in Shanghai harbor.

February 20.—Some hundreds of Cossacks reach Chon-ju, south of the Yalu....Russia responds satisfactorily to the proposals contained in the note of Secretary Hay.

February 22.—Vice-Admiral Makaroff is appointed to the command of the Russian Pacific Ocean fleet.

February 23.—General Sakaroff is appointed Russian minister of war *ad interim*, while General Kuropatkin goes to Manchuria.

February 24.—The Japanese endeavor to block Port Arthur harbor by sinking four old ships filled with explosives. These vessels are sunk, but do not block the harbor....Mr. Hay is informed that the Japanese Government formally concluded a treaty with the Emperor of Korea, which guarantees the independence of Korea.

February 25.—The Japanese renew the attack on Port Arthur.

February 28.—Russia promulgates rules of war; coal and other kinds of fuel are declared contraband.

March 1.—The Japanese general staff sails for Chemulpho.

March 6.—Five Japanese battleships and two cruisers bombard Vladivostok at long range.

March 8.—Admiral Makaroff arrives at Dalny....The Marquis Ito is appointed special Japanese envoy to Korea.

March 11.—The Japanese fleet bombards Port Arthur for four hours at long range; Admiral Makaroff reports that six Russian torpedo-boats from Port Arthur sink a Japanese torpedo-boat, suffering the loss of a destroyer.

March 17.—The Russian torpedo-boat destroyer *Skorri* is blown up at Port Arthur by an unplaced mine.

March 18.—Marquis Ito visits the Emperor of Korea.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

February 19.—Cash wheat goes to \$1.08 on the Chicago market.

February 20.—Rumors of European war complications cause the greatest panic on the Paris Bourse since 1870.... Fire in a Paris celluloid factory causes great loss of life.

ERNST HÄCKEL.

(Bust by Herold, unveiled on the seventieth birthday of the great scientist, February 27.)

THE LATE DUKE OF CAMBRIDGE.

(Former commander-in-chief of the British army, a grandson of King George III., and a cousin of Queen Victoria.)

February 23.—The Hague Arbitration Tribunal, in the matter of the claims of blockading powers for preferential treatment of their claims against Venezuela, decides unanimously that Great Britain, Germany, and Italy have the right to a preference of 90 per cent. of the customs duties.

February 26.—Fire in the business center of Rochester, N. Y., causes a loss of \$2,500,000. Ratifications of the Panama Canal treaty between the United States and Panama are exchanged at Washington; President Roosevelt issues a proclamation putting the treaty in effect.

February 27.—The Wisconsin State Capitol, at Madison, is burned, entailing a loss of about \$300,000. An arbitration treaty between Great Britain and Spain is signed.

March 2.—The "Bates treaty" with the Sultan of Sulu is abrogated.

March 9.—President Roosevelt nominates John Barrett as minister to Panama, W. L. Russell as minister to Colombia, and Arthur W. Breaupré as minister to Venezuela.

March 18.—The bituminous-coal miners of the middle West return a majority of more than 90,000 against a strike.

OBITUARY.

February 19.—Henry Austin Clapp, the Boston dramatic critic, 60. Frederick H. Winston, formerly United States minister to Persia, 73. James A. Skilton, an early American exponent of the works of Herbert Spencer, 75.

February 21.—Ex-Congressman Gabriel Bouck, of Oshkosh, Wis., 75. Commander William P. Randall, U.S.N., 72. Dr. George W. Neville, a pioneer Union

leader in Missouri, 82. Owen Fawcett, the well-known actor, 66.

February 22.—Sir Leslie Stephen, the English author, 71. Rev. George A. Hall, State secretary of the Young Men's Christian Association for New York, 67. Commander Martin E. Hall, U.S.N., retired, 57. William F. Pecher, the organist of St. Patrick's Cathedral, New York City, 72. Leopold Strouse, founder of the Semitic library of Johns Hopkins University, 60. Alfred Klein, the actor, 40.

February 24.—Charles F. Mayer, formerly president of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Company, 70. James Parish Lee, inventor of the Lee rifle, 71.

February 27.—William S. Daniels, Washington correspondent of the *St. Louis Republic*, 48. Barbara MacGahan, a well-known writer, 53.

February 28.—Gen. Sir Arthur Power Palmer, formerly commander-in-chief of the British army in India, 64. Edwin Franklin Abell, of the Baltimore Sun, 64.

February 29.—General Vannovski, former Russian minister of war, 82. Bishop Anthony Durier, of the diocese of Natchitoches, La., 72.

March 2.—Russell W. Davenport, of Philadelphia, a distinguished metallurgist, 55.

March 3.—Rev. William Henry Harrison Murray ("Adirondack" Murray), 64.

March 4.—Sir Joseph W. Trutch, formerly governor of British Columbia, 78. Rev. Eugene De Normandie, a well-known Unitarian clergyman of Massachusetts, 73. Rev. Francis D. McGuire, rector of the Cathedral of the Immaculate Conception at Albany, N. Y., 57.

March 5.—Field Marshal Count von Waldersee, who commanded the allied forces in China in 1900, 72. Ex-Mayor Nathan Cole, of St. Louis, 79.

March 8.—Robert Taber, the actor, 83.

March 9.—Former Justice Jackson O. Dykman, of the New York Supreme Court, 78. Lord Augustus Loftus, former British ambassador at Berlin and St. Petersburg, 67. Erastus Dow Palmer, of Albany, N. Y., one of the pioneers of American sculpture, 66.

March 10.—Representative George W. Croft, of Aiken, S. C., 57.

March 11.—Sir Herbert Harley Murray, former governor of Newfoundland, 74.

March 12.—Former Justice Sylvester A. Kellogg, of the New York Supreme Court, 66.

March 13.—Joseph Ludovic Trarieux, former French minister of justice, 64.

March 17.—The Duke of Cambridge, formerly commander-in-chief of the British army, 85. Dr. William F. Holcombe, one of the best-known physicians in New York City, 77.

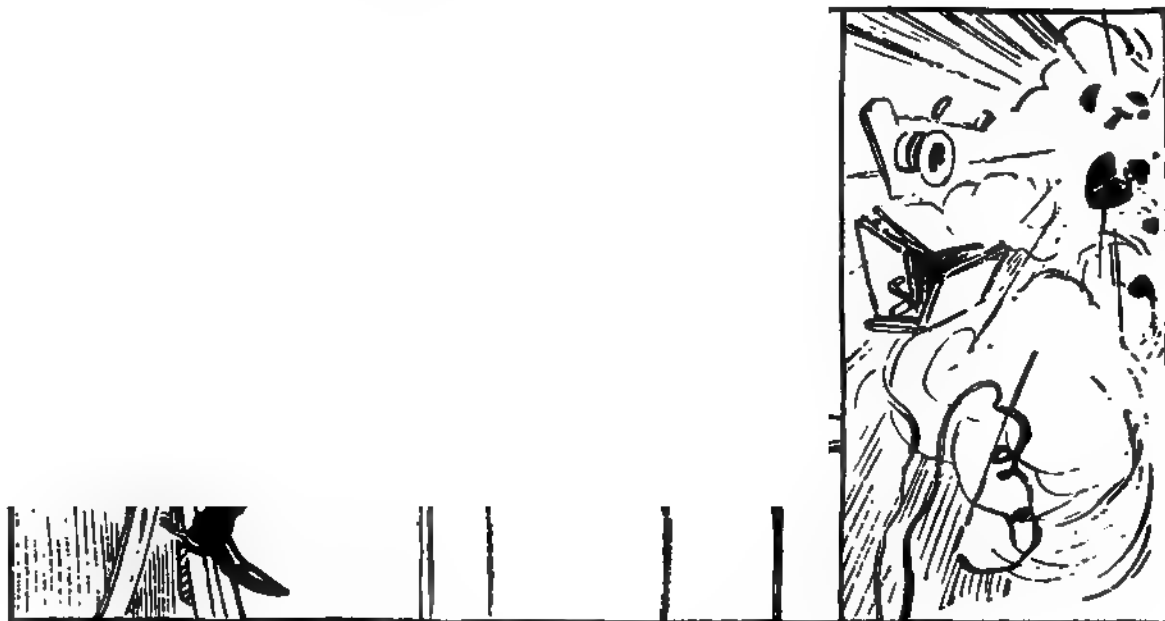
March 18.—David Watson Stevenson, the Scottish sculptor, 62. Watson Amburster, editor of the *Philadelphia Evening Telegraph*, 63.

March 19.—Thomas Lawrence Forrest, a pioneer Chicago banker, 85.

**The Minnesota farmer figures out what wheat would be
worth in case of a world's war.
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).**

**SURPRISING THE SOUTH AMERICANS.
From the *Leader* (Cleveland).**

THE SNOWSTORM AND THE THAW.—From the *Evening News* (Detroit).



CEAR NICHOLAI, AT THE TELEPHONE (a German view of the situation): "Hurrah, my brave ones! Why do you cough so loudly? I cannot understand a word!"—From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

KOREA'S PLEASANT POSITION.

Whatever happens, Korea is bound to be trodden under foot.
From *Ulk* (Berlin).

FRIENDSHIP WITHOUT MUTUAL ADVANTAGES.

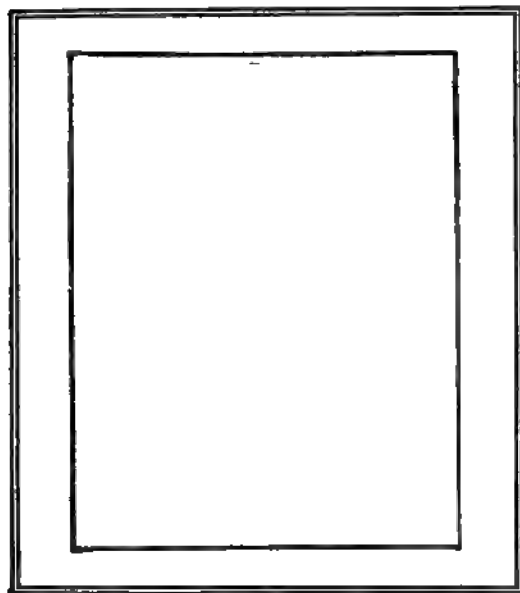
A German view of the Russo-German trade relations.
From *Wahre Jacob* (Berlin).



THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

A French view of the natural difficulties encountered by the Russian and Japanese soldiers in the far East.

From *Journal Amusant* (Paris).



THE RUSSIAN ANGEL OF PEACE WITH HIS EMPTY POCKETS.

From *Jugend* (Berlin).

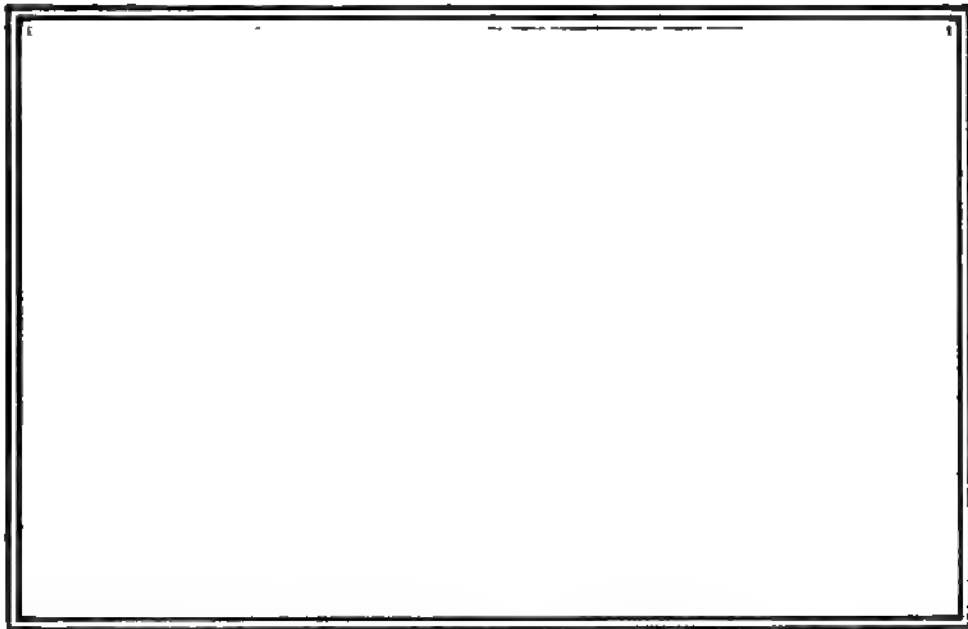
RUSSIA AND JAPAN CAJOLING KOREA.

From *Ull* (Berlin).

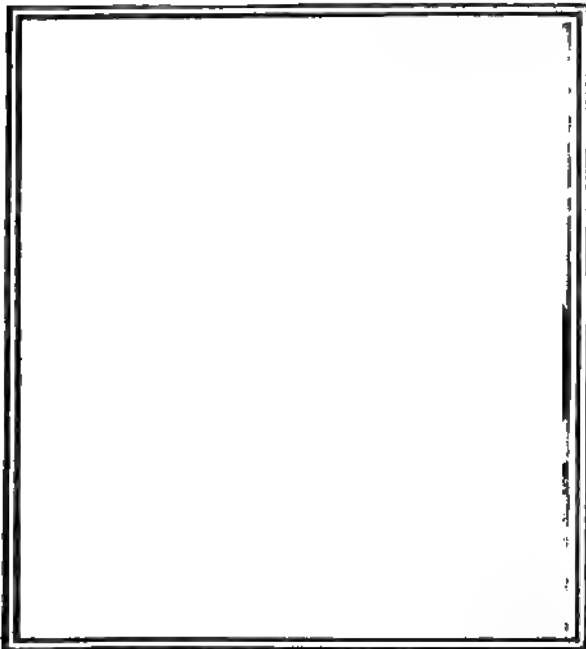
INTERNATIONAL POLITICS.

If the fruits hang too high for the European powers, they say that their spheres of interest are not affected.

From *Lustige Blätter* (Berlin).



SERIOUS FABLE: THE KITTEN AND THE BEAR IN WAR.—The brave kitten is awaiting the arrival of the bear, tired from the long wait, and as soon as he sees him, jumps on his back, saying: "The dominion of Korea is my home. If ever you walk upon it, Manchuria's wall shall bury you! I am but a poor kitten, but I shall find many true protectors; you, powerful bear will find but repulses and false promises."—From *Il Papagallo* (Rome).



JAP THE GIANT-KILLER.

JAP: "Well, I've got you in a hole all right. Now, mind you don't lose your head."
From *Punch* (Melbourne).

UNRUFFLED!

They thunder at the Bear from Japan and China, but he sits unperturbed in the midst of the Chinese honeycombs, of which he is so fond!—From *Hind Punch* (Calcutta).

THE PANAMA COMMISSION AND ITS WORK

BY WALTER WELLMAN.

AT last the seemingly interminable period of investigation, agitation, and controversy is at an end, and the United States is going ahead with the practical work of digging the Panama Canal. President Roosevelt has named and the Senate has confirmed the Isthmian Canal Commission, the body which is to have direct charge of the gigantic enterprise. The members of the commission are: Rear-Admiral Walker, U.S.N. (retired), Maj.-Gen. George W. Davis, U.S.A. (retired), both of the District of Columbia; William Barclay Parsons, of New York; William H. Burr, of New York; Benjamin M. Harrod, of Louisiana; Carl Ewald Grunsky, of California, and Frank J. Hecker, of Michigan.

This commission is essentially a body of engineers, six of the seven having distinguished themselves in engineering work. Rear-Admiral Walker, who was named by President Roosevelt to be president of the commission, is not an engineer, technically speaking, but he has had large experience with engineering operations. It is the prevailing opinion throughout the country that President Roosevelt was successful in getting together a most admirable and well-balanced

body of men for this important work. From the first, Mr. Roosevelt insisted that political considerations and political influence should have nothing whatever to do with the selection of members of the commission. He adhered to this policy throughout, resisting all the pressure brought to bear upon him in the interest of men favored by politicians. Indeed, in one case the President had as good as made up his mind to name a certain man, but the friends of this gentleman, presumably at his instance, wrote so many letters and telegrams in his behalf, and sent so many politicians to the White House to speak for him, that—he was not appointed. In choosing his men, Mr. Roosevelt did not stop to ask whether they were Republicans or Democrats; and to this day, probably, he does not know the political affiliations of all his appointees.

If not ideal—the best that could possibly have been found—the commission is sufficiently strong. In one or two instances, the President was unable to get the men he wanted. Engineers of the first rank earn large incomes. Uncle Sam is notoriously a poor payer. The President has fixed the salaries of the commissioners at \$12,500 per year, with an additional allowance of \$15 per day for all time spent upon the Isthmus. This will give them an average, perhaps, of \$15,000 a year, which certainly is not overgenerous to men of proved ability and established reputation.

THE PERSONNEL.

Admiral Walker has been associated with canal inquiries for many years. He was a member of the old Nicaragua Canal Commission. He was a member and president of the recent Isthmian Canal Commission, appointed by President McKinley, and authorized to investigate the Panama as well as the Nicaragua and other routes by a provision which was inserted in the act by the late Senator Hanna. Much of the skillful handling of the canal propositions by this commission, which led the French Panama company to reduce its price from \$109,000,000 to \$40,000,000, was due to the hard-headedness and clever diplomacy of Admiral Walker. That was a delicate period in the history of the negotiations, and a single mistake might have been fatal. Admiral Walker is probably more familiar with canal conditions than any other living American. He has made many trips to the Isthmus, and has

ADMIRAL JOHN G. WALKER, U.S.N. (RETIRED).
(Chairman of the Isthmian Canal Commission.)

personally inquired into all the routes and plans. He has virtually "lived with" the canal problem these last ten years. He is a strong executive, and a diplomatic manager of men.

Without doubt, the most distinguished engineer on the commission is Mr. Parsons. He won his spurs in railroad work in China for a syndicate of which the late Senator Calvin S. Brice was the head, but is best known as the designer of the subway in New York City for the Rapid Transit Commission, of which he has for several years been the chief engineer. His work in connection with the transportation problem in New York,—to-day the most difficult and complicated transportation problem in the world,—has been marked by a high order of ability and zeal. He may not have shown much originality, but it was not a field in which pioneering was desired. He is now recognized as one of the foremost transportation experts in the world, as is witnessed by the fact that he has been chosen an advisory member of the royal (English) commission which is to investigate and report upon the passenger-traffic problem of London. Mr. Parsons is young and energetic, and on the Isthmus will find a field for original and constructive work of a higher and more interesting type than he has as yet had to deal with.

Mr. Burr is also a distinguished engineer. His skill has been tried in a great variety of public works and never found wanting. He has the additional advantage of knowing the canal problem through and through, having served as a member both of the Nicaragua Com-

MR. WILLIAM BARCLAY PARSONS, OF NEW YORK.

mission and of the late Isthmian Commission. He has been all over the Isthmus, and has full knowledge of all the requirements of the situation.

General Davis is not only an engineer, but has had an invaluable experience as executive head of provincial governments, and it is President Roosevelt's wish that he be made virtually the governor and administrator of the canal zone. He was in charge of two departments in Cuba, was at the head of affairs in Porto Rico, and later was governor of Manila, and also of Luzon, in the Philippines. No other American has had as much experience of this sort as he, and President Roosevelt has doubtless chosen wisely in picking out this seasoned and trained military-civil administrator for the onerous and responsible post of governor of the Isthmus.

Messrs. Harrod and Grunsky are engineers of long experience, each an authority in his specialty. Mr. Harrod is a river worker, having been in charge of important operations on the Mississippi, while Mr. Grunsky is a mining engineer, and probably knows as much about the handling of rock as any other man in the country.

Colonel Hecker is not an engineer, but a business man. He has been associated with some large operations, and during the Spanish-Amer-

ican War was director of transportation for the Government under Secretary of War Alger. It is an interesting fact that Colonel Hecker is the only man whose appointment as a member of the commission was suggested to President Roosevelt by the late Senator Hanna.

UTILIZING THE FRENCH PLANS AND MATERIALS.

With characteristic American promptness, the commission met in Washington, on March 22,—less than three weeks after its appointment and confirmation,—and arranged to sail for the Isthmus on the 29th, so that in the very month

MR. BENJAMIN M. HARRIS, OF LOUISIANA.

already done. One of the things they will have to decide is as to what extent and in what particulars they are going to depart from the details of the French project. Probably they will make some changes as to the Bahia dam, the location and character of the locks, and the disposition of the flood-waters of the Chagres River. But there should be no delay on this account in starting actual operations, because the digging of the canal proper can go on while these plans

MAJ.-GEN. GEORGE W. DAVIS, U.S.A. (RETIRED).

of their creation the commissioners had met, organized, and started for the scene of their future labors. The commission will have a look at the canal strip, which is new ground to all but two of them. They will study on the spot the plans and drawings purchased from the French company,—a set of drawings, maps, and specifications which must rank as the most voluminous and complete ever prepared for an engineering enterprise. The French have genius for that sort of thing, and their work in this instance has been pronounced little less than marvellous. If my memory is correct, the Walker Commission valued the maps and drawings of the Panama Company at a million dollars; and Admiral Walker, who is more familiar with them than any one else, says they are worth every cent of it. So far as plans are concerned, the commissioners will find much of their work

MR. CARL EWALD GRUNSKY, OF CALIFORNIA.

are being perfected. In all estimates of the money and time needed for the completion of this enterprise, it should not be forgotten that so far as the excavation of the main channel is concerned, about 25 per cent. of the work is already done.

attention. In fact, preliminary investigations in this line have already been made. The commission will send to the Isthmus Col. W. C. Gorgas, the yellow-fever expert of the army, who has done such excellent work in Cuba. He will study the local situation and prepare comprehensive plans for sanitation of the canal zone and of the city of Panama itself. Sewerage and drainage systems, and the introduction of an adequate supply of pure water, are held as imperative needs, no matter how much they may cost. Yellow fever is the plague most feared, but by improved sanitation and a thorough system of inspection, with occasional quarantine against La Guayra and other fever ports near by, there is little doubt that the health conditions among the many thousands of workmen who will soon be on the Isthmus may be made comparatively satisfactory. General Davis told a Congressional committee, a few days ago, that he thought the Isthmus could be made as healthful as Havana and other tropical cities, and that the Americans who go there need not suffer serious inconvenience if they only take care of themselves.

Dr. Spratling, brigade surgeon, who has been on the Isthmus with the American marines, reports that there has not been a case of yellow fever, malaria, or any other disease peculiar to the region among his men, and he attributes their immunity largely to the fact that they drink none but distilled water. He says the general health conditions along the canal route are very much better than they are generally supposed to be. Except at the ocean ends, most

COL. FRANK J. HECKER, OF MICHIGAN.

During the next few weeks, the commission will determine how much of the machinery and appliances of the French company now on the ground are available for work in the future. Not much is expected from this source. While there are many valuable dredges and excavators, hundreds of locomotives and thousands of cars, the commission will regard itself as fortunate if it saves 10 per cent. of useful material out of the whole. But even that will be a nucleus to start with. The same is largely true of the buildings,—offices, hospitals, storehouses, etc.,—erected by the old De Lesseps company and its successor. Many of these costly buildings have gone to rack and ruin, and are now worthless. Others may be repaired. Here, again, is a nucleus which will save much time and not a little money in starting the first operations.

THE PROBLEM OF SANITATION.

No more important subject than the sanitation of the Isthmus is to be taken up by the commission, and none other will receive earlier

MR. EDWARD C. O'BRIEN.
(Probable secretary of the commission.)

political agitation ; but, as a matter of fact, white men cannot do the work, and it is a choice between Jamaica blacks and coolies. The latter are the more effective workers, and will take better care of themselves. General Davis believes that the sanitation of the Isthmus the first year will cost a half-million dollars, and that it will cost \$300,000 a year to police the strip. These figures suggest the magnitude of the undertaking upon which our government has entered.

THE QUESTION OF CONTRACTS.

One of the most important decisions that the commission has to make is as to how it will construct the canal,—whether it will do the work directly, as the Government carries on many river and harbor operations, under the direction of its army engineers, or whether it will let the work out to contractors. Opinion in the commission, so far as can be learned, greatly favors the contract method, and it is assumed that that method will be adopted. Then arises the question of how the work shall be subdivided,—that is, into how many contracts, and of what scope, character, and size. All these are details which the experienced men of the commission will have little difficulty in working out. Time will be required to allot the work into sections and to prepare the minute specifications which are absolutely indispensable to the advertising for bids and the letting of contracts. Hence, it may be six or eight months before some of the most important contracts can be let ; and after they are let, more time will be required before the successful

ADMIRAL WALKER AND CAPT. CHARLES COGELAN.

(In conference at Washington Hotel, Colon, during the last visit of the former commission to Panama.)

of the route is well above the sea-level, and the danger of epidemic is small. Great care will have to be exercised at the termini ; and among the things he recommends is drainage of the immense marshes near Panama and Colon, which breed billions and billions of mosquitoes. White men who have been on the Isthmus many years say that they have no trouble with fevers, but find it necessary to take good care of themselves. All the laborers now employed by the French company, four or five hundred in number, are Jamaica negroes, and their health is fairly good, considering their habits.

General Davis thinks that Chinese coolies would be the most effective and economical laborers that could be employed in digging the canal. There may be prejudice against the employment of Chinese which will result in

TYPICAL HOUSES OF CANAL LABORERS IN PANAMA.

THE FAMOUS CULEBRA CUT, PANAMA CANAL, SHOWING THE EXCAVATION ALREADY ACCOMPLISHED.

bidders can assemble their men and machinery and start the actual work of construction. It has been suggested that the entire enterprise should be let to a syndicate of American contractors, who will be able to finance the operation on a large scale. Much is to be said in favor of this plan, as a contracting organization having the whole work in hand could in some respects probably work with greater economy than a large number of contractors. But it is certain that public prejudice would be roused against the syndicate method, for in that case people would ask, Why should the Government not carry on the operation itself, without giving the syndicate a chance to reap big profits?

The plan most in favor is to subdivide the work according to the special character of the parts and advertise for bids thereon, presuming that contractors who are specialists, as most modern contractors are, would seek out the lots to which their experience and machinery and implements are adaptable. There is a feeling among the commissioners that the project is too vast to be controlled from one head, and that the energies and self-interest of a large number of men accustomed to dealing with such work would be

more likely to secure effective results and rapid progress than any centralized control, whether retained in the hands of the commission itself or given over to a syndicate of contractors. It is also believed that individual contractors can find the means to finance their undertakings, and that economy of transportation and management will be as great under many masters as under one.

It is the desire of the American people, of President Roosevelt, and of the commission that the work be pushed with all proper expedition, and, above all, that there be no scandals connected with it. There is no reason why there should be scandal. And the contracting method,—the many specialized contracts,—offers the best assurance against fraud. The genius of Americans for organization, and for carrying on large construction works of all sorts, is proverbial the world over. There was no scandal attending the construction of the Chicago drainage canal, a work which cost one-fourth as much as the Panama Canal is estimated to cost. With the engineer commission selected by President Roosevelt to prepare the specifications, to let the contracts, and in the end to see that every requirement of the agreements is fulfilled by the

men who do the work, there is little chance for speculation or fraud to creep in. The country may feel reasonably sure that this greatest engineering work the world has ever known will be prosecuted to completion in an amazingly short time, considering its magnitude, and without any unsavory record such as that which attached to the De Lesseps régime in the old Panama company.

THE PROGRAMME OF CONSTRUCTION.

The work of constructing the Panama Canal will naturally be separated into three grand divisions, considered from the engineering and purely constructive standpoint. First is the comparatively simple matter of completing the excavation along the level stretches and including the famous Culebra cut, which, though a big operation, is not at all complicated or difficult. Second is the building of the Bahia dam, which is to create the interior fresh-water lake. This calls for engineering skill of the highest order, and it is possible that the commission may

decide to do this part of the work itself instead of letting it out to contractors. It is well known that this is the only phase of the project which gives the engineers any anxiety, for they realize its difficulty and delicacy. Probably, also, American workmen will be sent out to build this dam, as it requires the touch of skillful and experienced hands, and cannot be left to Jamaica blacks or Chinese coolies. The third division will be the construction of the locks and the harbors and piers at the ocean ends of the channel.

But apart from all this is the task of disposing of the flood-waters of the Chagres; the sanitation of the entire district; the drainage of vast marshes; the effort to mitigate the mosquito pest and danger; the introduction of an ample supply of fresh water; and the civil and judicial administration of the canal zone, with its population, a year or two hence, of perhaps forty or fifty thousand rough and ignorant people. It is quite apparent that the members of the Isthmian Canal Commission are going to have their hands full during the next few years.

RUSSIA'S CIVILIZING WORK IN ASIA.

BY PROFESSOR G. FREDERICK WRIGHT.

(Author of "Asiatic Russia.")

THE advance of the Russians into Asia is closely paralleled by that of the English and the French into North America. In both cases it was accomplished by adventurous explorers and pioneers whom the governments have tardily followed with their protection and support. The full development of the resources of North America was long delayed by physical conditions which could not be overcome with rapidity until steam had been introduced as an economical working force. Still, in America the great lines of drainage flowed unfettered to the sea.

But northern Asia, which invited colonists from Russia, was blessed with no such outlets to a navigable ocean. The internal channels of commerce in Asia are, however, of magnificent proportions. The Obi, the Yenisei, the Lena, and the Amur each drains a basin rich in agricultural, mining, and forestry interests almost equal to those of the Mississippi Valley; but they all flow into ice-bound seas, so that egress and access are practically impossible to ocean-going vessels.

THE SIBERIAN SYSTEM OF POST ROADS.

But, in due time, the accompaniments of civilization followed the advance of Russian pioneers into this isolated region. In the early part

of the eighteenth century, all the principal settlements from the Ural Mountains to the Pacific Ocean were connected by postal routes, over which the distances were carefully measured. Where it was possible, these routes were broad wagon roads, twenty-one feet wide, over which officials, travelers, and immigrants could be transported at the most rapid possible speed by horses, and at very moderate rates. Indeed, the postal-road system of Russia, which was extended through Siberia, was the most perfect that had ever been devised before the invention of steam. I have driven fourteen hundred miles at a stretch over one of these post roads with great comfort, stopping nights at post-houses, so as to travel only by day in order to see the country, and yet averaging eighty-five miles a day. This was effected by changing horses and drivers at post-houses from ten to fifteen miles apart. For two hundred years, such roads have extended across Siberia, so that it was no unusual thing for a messenger under urgent orders to travel two hundred miles a day for a prolonged period of time. The stream of commerce that has poured through the central post road from China to Russia for the past two hundred years is surprising in its amount. The charge for horses, fixed by the government, was limited to less than two cents a mile; while in Scotland and England similar service, before railroads were introduced, cost more than twice that amount.

RUSSIA A PIONEER IN ESTABLISHING CHEAP POSTAGE.

One hundred and fifty years ago, letters were carried fifteen hundred miles in Siberia for a charge of only nine cents, and four thousand miles,—namely, from Moscow to Nertchinsk,—for twenty cents; while in England the charge for short distances on the island was twenty-eight cents, and in France twenty-five cents, for six hundred miles. Even as late as 1846, ten cents

was charged in the United States for carrying letters all distances over three hundred miles. In 1731, a fortnightly mail was established between Tobolsk and Moscow, a distance of twelve hundred miles; while, at about the same time, mails were carried between New York and Boston, a distance of two hundred and fifty miles, only once in two weeks. In 1784, the mail-carriers of England traveled at the rate of three miles and a half an hour, while in Siberia it was, for a considerable part of the route, from eight to ten miles an hour; two hundred miles a day being no uncommon speed. This establishment of rapid transit of mails and of cheap postage is one of the most important civilizing and humanizing missions of a government, and that priceless boon was given by Russia to northern Asia at a very early period of its occupation. In later times it has been supplemented by the railroad and the telegraph.

SIBERIAN LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS.

In the surprisingly short time of seventy years from Yermak's entrance to the valley of the Obi, Russian pioneers had reached the Pacific Ocean, and penetrated to the mouth of the Lena, and established important centers of civilization at numerous points which have continued to increase to the present day. Tobolsk, Omsk, Tomsk, Krasnoyarsk, Minusinsk, Irkutsk, Yakutsk, Verkhne Udinsk, and Nertchinsk have behind them as long a history as Salem and Boston. While they have not developed in size like those early New England settlements, they can render an excuse for not so doing by pointing to the limiting conditions which have surrounded them, which even yet are only partially removed. But at Tomsk one will now find a university which will compare favorably with any in the United States fifty years ago. At Krasnoyarsk he will find a library of a wealthy Siberian, filled with many treasures which any European library would covet, but could not obtain. At Minusinsk, three hundred miles away from the Siberian railroad, is a museum which is the admiration of the world, where from the local collections the transition from the stone to the bronze and the iron age is more perfectly shown than anywhere else. In this collection are sixty thousand specimens well housed in a two-story brick building, and arranged and classified after the most approved methods, with an equally commodious library building adjoining it. All this has been accomplished by private subscription. And this is only a specimen of what is to be found in nearly every Siberian town of more than ten thousand inhabitants. The country abounds in museums and in people who are in-

terested in them. Minusinsk has but fifteen thousand people, but in the larger cities of Irkutsk and Khabarovsk, where branches of the Royal Geographical Society exist, the museums, though not so much specialized as this one at Minusinsk, are built and organized on a larger plan.

Irkutsk, nearly four thousand miles east of St. Petersburg, though containing only about sixty thousand inhabitants, has, besides its large museum, an elegant opera-house, vying, in proportions and fullness of equipment, with anything found in America outside of New York City. It has a public reading-room and a library containing books and magazines in all the leading languages of Europe. At Blagovyeschensk, on the Amur River, fourteen hundred miles farther east, in a city of thirty thousand, one will find, in addition to a well-equipped hospital and library and museum, a community of such high musical culture that a local society renders with ease and in most creditable style such choruses as those of Saint-Saens' "Samson and Delilah."

THE WORK OF RUSSIAN SCIENTISTS.

The enlightened character of Russian rule is strikingly illustrated in the attention given from the earliest times to the scientific explorations of the regions which have come under her influence. As early as 1733 an expedition was sent into Siberia under charge of the eminent savant, Messerschmidt, which conducted work continuously for ten years, obtaining most important results. In 1768, Gemelin, and the more distinguished Pallas, took charge of scientific expeditions for the exploration of the Aral-Caspian depression, and extended their investigations to the Altai Mountains and beyond, even crossing Lake Baikal and ascending the Selenga River as far as the Chinese border. The work of Pallas in this region, indeed, marks an era in scientific explorations, giving to the world a great enlargement of its knowledge in several departments of natural history.

At a later period, when Russian influence was established at Semipalatinsk, the Russian botanist, Sivers, and later the illustrious Humboldt, and several others eminent in particular lines of scientific research, were dispatched to extend the world's knowledge concerning the unknown regions upon the border. In 1856, M. P. P. Semenov was sent out by the Imperial Russian Geographical Society to explore the Ala-tau and the Tian-Shan ranges, resulting in one of the most valuable geological monographs that have ever been published. From 1868 to 1871, Professor Fedchenko, with his wife, was engaged in making a

Courtesy of McClure, Phillips & Co.

THE MUSEUM AT MINUSINK (SIBERIA).

zoological collection in Turkestan. Their collection, in which are included fifty-seven thousand specimens, represented five thousand species. The building of the Trans-Siberian Railroad has been accompanied by extensive and careful geological surveys, resulting already in twenty-five illustrated quarto volumes.

Within the last five years two large, beautifully illustrated volumes upon the geology and natural history of Okhotsk and Kamchatka have been published by the government; while, almost immediately upon entering Manchuria, scientific men were set at work preparing volumes upon that region which bring its great resources to the knowledge of the whole world. At the beginning of this century, the Russian Government published the most important work on climatology that has ever appeared, incorporating the results of accurate observations over the largest land area belonging to any one government, covering in many cases a period of one hundred and fifty years, that being the length of time during which accurate observations bearing upon the weather have been kept at Yakutsk, Nertchinsk, and other distant localities in Siberia.

RELIGIOUS COMMUNITIES.

Unfortunate misconceptions have arisen from the exclusive association of Siberia with the exile system, whereas the exiles form but a very small part of the population. From the earliest time Siberia has been a favorite refuge for the dissenting Russian religious sects, whose members in

large numbers have sought freedom in the various provinces. These dissenting sects originated about the time of the landing of the Pilgrims at Plymouth, and, though giving less attention to education than the Anglo-Saxon dissenters, have all their chief sterling moral qualities. They are industrious and economical, and strict observers of the precepts of the moral law. They abstain from the use of tobacco and alcohol, and have become the most prosperous element in the Russian Empire. Enrolled among them are a large number of the richest merchants of Moscow, many of the mining princes of the Urals, and, according to the best estimates, between twelve and fifteen million Russians, including most of the Cossacks of the Don. It is estimated that in Siberia there are fully half a million of these hardy, God-fearing pioneers. In Transbaikalia, they are really the predominant element, having gone there in large numbers, one hundred years ago, to occupy the richest farming land. In the province of Amur, they comprise 10 per cent. of the population, and own and control the larger part of the steamboats on the Amur River. To those who set a high value upon laws prohibiting the sale of alcoholic beverages, it will be interesting to know that in more than five hundred villages scattered throughout Siberia, it would probably be impossible to find either tobacco or alcoholic beverages of any sort on sale.

RUSSIAN VILLAGES REPLANTED IN SIBERIA.

The Russian population in Siberia now numbers not far from eight millions. It is much to the credit of the Russian pioneers that they have been enabled, for the most part, to live at peace with the natives, and to mingle with them on

Courtesy of McClure, Phillips & Co.

OPERA HOUSE AT IRKUTSK (SIBERIA).

friendly terms without amalgamation. In general, the Russian woman has emigrated with the Russian man, and so has secured the establishment of a household wherever a pioneer has gone. Even the wives of exiles have pretty generally followed their husbands, to be with them if they were allowed the freedom of the country, or to be on hand to join them so soon as they were free. This relative equality of women and men in the pioneer settlements of Siberia has been largely secured through the attachment of the people to the village commune, or "*mir*." Through this organization, it has been brought about that most of the emigration to Siberia has been, not by separate individuals and families, but by whole villages. Having sent its elders in advance to select an eligible location, and having accepted their report, the entire village would sell its property at home and move in a body to the new country, transferring thither its entire organization. Through this means the home institutions have been transferred with little change, and the interests of morality subserved in a very high degree.

In short, Russia is a highly civilized and Christian nation. Her expansion into Siberia and Turkestan has been for the good of those countries. Her mission has been to establish order, to develop the resources of the country, and to look after the general well-being of both the native population and of the new settlers that have crowded in. It should be noted, also, that the Asiatic provinces of Russia have been acquired by less bloodshed than those of almost any other European power, and that in their subsequent relations with the natives the Russians have been peculiarly fortunate in establishing good feeling.

WHY RUSSIA IS NEEDED IN MANCHURIA.

The entrance of Russia into Manchuria is in response to an almost irresistible demand. For two hundred years, Russian settlers have lived in large numbers upon the northwestern border of Manchuria, separated from it only by the Argun, one of the principal branches of the Amur River. For the last fifty years a Russian population has been gathering in large numbers upon the north bank of the Amur River, and upon the east side of the Ussuri, until a cordon of Russian settlements surrounds northern Manchuria upon three sides. During all this time the Russians have scrupulously observed the treaties with the Chinese Government, and have refrained from forming settlements across the line. While the north bank of the Amur was dotted with Russian settlements for a distance of two thousand miles, no Russian settlements were permitted

upon the south side, but the Chinese have freely passed back and forth, and large settlements have been permitted to establish themselves upon the north side, and to live there under their own regulations.

Manchuria, which is the present bone of contention, is large enough to be an empire in itself, being about ten times as large as the State of Ohio. If it were as thickly populated as Ohio, it would contain 40,000,000. But the estimates of its population range from 10,000,000 to 20,000,000, while the larger part of this number is in the southern and southeastern provinces. The vast territory in northern Manchuria, which lies between the Russian settlements, is thinly populated, not because it is destitute of agricultural and mineral resources, but because of the disorganized social and political conditions. The Chinese Government has never been strong enough to secure throughout this region the protection of private rights which is essential to prosperity. The "robber bands," of which we hear so much in Manchuria, have so terrorized the whole country that there was no inducement for the accumulation of property throughout the regions bordering Russian possessions, where these bandits have had freest sway; while in the southern and southeastern parts, almost the only protection secured by the property-owners has been that granted them by an organization of the "robber bands" into a trust, which has, to some extent, served the purposes of government.

The entrance of Russia into Manchuria follows, therefore, the well-recognized natural demand of more civilized and orderly communities to enter into the possession of adjoining territory which is not properly policed or developed by existing occupants and governing powers. The government of China has not done enough for the unsettled portions of Manchuria to give her any special claim upon the territory. In the main, the people have been left to protect themselves; so that the relation of the Russians to northern Manchuria is not much different from that of the people of the United States, a generation or two ago, to the fertile areas in the West.

HOW SHE HAPPENS TO BE THERE—THE RAILROAD.

But Russia did not enter Manchuria by force. She secured the harbors of Port Arthur and Dalny by a treaty with China in time of peace. Later, she secured the privilege of building a railroad across Manchuria to these ports, which greatly shortens the distance from central Siberia to the ocean, and secures for the millions of Siberia an outlet to the world's commerce in waters that are free from ice. According to the provisions of this treaty, the Chinese Government

ness center. So far as can be learned, the Chinese themselves, at least the intelligent portion of them engaged in business, look upon the advent of Russian influence in Manchuria as—what it is—a great godsend to the country. It has established order, and thereby opened an area nearly as large as the upper Mississippi Valley to the occupation of peaceful settlers and those engaged in every legitimate occupation.

Among the far-reaching effects of the Boxer revolution, some of the most important were the changed conditions which it brought about in Manchuria. In violation of the provisions of their treaty, the Chinese, instead of protecting the railroad, turned in and did their utmost to destroy it and all the vested interests

connected with it. This also let loose the "robber bands," which had been held in check by the presence of the Russians. As a consequence, the Russians were compelled to send troops in to restore order and to furnish that protection which the Chinese Government had promised to give, but was unable to afford.

A PARALLEL CASE—ENGLAND IN EGYPT.

Russia is in Manchuria in almost exactly the same way that England is in Egypt, and she would probably prefer to remain there, as England remains in Egypt, as "the power behind the throne," preserving the vested interests of civilization, while leaving the ordinary government of the people to the original occupants. Indeed, as already remarked, Russia has peculiar facility in dealing with native populations over which she assumes control, and everywhere she allows a large amount of local freedom when it does not interfere with loyalty to the central government. This appears in the preservation of the institution of the village commune throughout the empire, which, within its range (and it is a pretty wide range), is the most perfect remnant of a pure democracy that is to be found anywhere in the world. So in Turkestan, when once subdued, the Mohammedan population is allowed the utmost religious freedom consistent with good order, and is taking most kindly to Russian rule.

Courtesy of McClure, Phillips & Co.

THE PUBLIC CLASSICAL SCHOOL AT IRKUTSK (SIBERIA).

bound itself to give adequate military protection to the road; while the Russians bought the right of way, paying in all cases fair prices, and oftentimes exorbitant prices, and spending vast sums of money to avoid interfering with the cemeteries of the Chinese, which are so highly revered. The Russians were allowed to police the strip of land four hundred feet wide necessary for the right of way, and the squares needed for stations and repair shops.

Under the provisions of this treaty, about eighteen hundred miles of railroad were rapidly built, involving a vast expenditure of public money, and incidentally fostering the growth of great vested interests all along the line, and this without protest from any European governments, or even from Japan. It is estimated by Mr. Ugovitch, the engineer-in-chief, that public and private parties have already spent two hundred and fifty million dollars in building the road and establishing those institutions of various sorts which accompany Western civilization. In the city of Harbin alone, there has been gathered, in four years, upon the grounds purchased by the railroad, a population of sixty thousand, amply provided with churches, schools, hospitals, and a great variety of business houses, owned, it is said, largely by Siberian Jews. Forty thousand, however, of the population are Chinese, who have flocked thither to make it their busi-

After the occupation of the region north of the Amur River by the Russians, the Chinese came over into the country in great numbers, and were permitted to continue the exercise of their own local government, until, during the Boxer revolution, the action of the Chinese Government shook the confidence, not only of Russia, but of the world, in her ability to maintain treaties in good faith. Russia might remain in Manchuria for its good, as England does in Egypt, if China should become able to reestablish the machinery of government and make it effective.

WHY RUSSIA COULD NOT EVACUATE MANCHURIA.

But, having entered Manchuria as she has, Russia is bound, both for the sake of protecting the vested interests which have grown up about the Chinese Eastern Railroad, and for the sake of the future of the vast population accumulating in central and eastern Siberia, to use all legitimate means to maintain her position and keep open the established lines of commerce with the outside world. Such being the case, it is difficult to see the justice of the harsh judgment which has been passed upon Russia for not, as the phrase has it, "evacuating Manchuria;" for her promises to evacuate have never been without the expressed or implied reservation always inhering in such promises, that the conditions should be such, at the appointed time, that the great vested interests involved should not be imperiled by the evacuation. It has seemed to her, and probably to all well-informed and candid observers, that the vested interests of Western civilization in Manchuria were too great to have been innocently imperiled by withdrawing Russian troops last October. Evidently China was not then able to repress the "robber bands" of Manchuria, and to afford the protection which she had promised to the railroad; while, at the same time, any one who was not blind to the facts could see that Japan was determinedly preparing for the encounter upon which she has just entered; so that the only feasible way of preventing an attack upon Russia's interests in Manchuria was to be so thoroughly ready that Japan would not dare to make the venture. The weakest point in all the Russian line is Newchwang, where the Russians were specially blamed for leaving troops. But if that were left unguarded, it would have been an easy matter for the Japanese to have cut the line of communication, thus isolating the Liao-Tong Peninsula from the main field of Russian occupation, and shutting her off from her natural outlet to the world. Apparently, the only road to peace for Russia was to prepare for war. But she was not sufficiently

prepared, and Japan has chosen its stern arbitrament.

In discussing the ethical demands of the situation, it is not needful to consider the fundamental principles of international law; but, taking these as they are generally recognized, and considering broadly the movement of social and political forces leading up to the present crisis in the East, it would seem evident that the conflict now going on was inevitable, and that our sympathies should be pretty equally divided between the contending powers. With Japan's increasing population and newly awakened life, the people could not be satisfied without a vigorous effort for territorial expansion; while the expansion of Russia in the direction of the Pacific, which has been going on for two hundred years, has been greatly accelerated by the discoveries and inventions of recent times; so that naturally she, like Japan, looked with covetous eyes upon the vast territory in northern Manchuria, which, owing to the misgovernment of the Chinese, was lying fallow. The Russian population had likewise this further excuse, that this unoccupied territory was adjoining her own, and was so situated upon the borders of the Chinese Empire that it was not really an integral part of it. As neither Japan nor Russia had any original, positive claim to the privilege of exploiting the territory, it is evidently one of those questions that must be settled in the best, or, if not the best, the only possible way,—that is, by the arbitrament of war.

At the present time, we are bound to consider the conditions as they *are*, and not as they *were* ten years ago or before.

It would seem that the reasonable way would have been for the two contending nations to have looked at the matter from a rational point of view, and to have effected a compromise by which both parties could have come to an understanding and lived peaceably together upon the Pacific coast. But the interests involved are so large and complicated that the intellect of the average man is not able to solve the problems arising. Any compromise which would have been made by either of the governments without a trial of arms would have been distrusted by the people at large of both countries. After Japan's elaborate preparation for war, no government could have maintained the confidence of the people without attempting to get more than the Russians were ready to grant. At the same time, those military preparations of Japan drove the Russian people to demand counter preparation on their part, so that negotiations, when entered into, could be conducted on equal terms.

A MODEL INDUSTRIAL VILLAGE.

BY F. H. STEAD.

MR. GEORGE CADBURY, English millionaire, capitalist, chocolate manufacturer, Quaker, leader in labor discussions, Quietist, and journalist,—it is a remarkable combination.

In 1879, the Cadburys, only moderately successful in their business, removed their factory from crowded Birmingham to a site five miles out in the country, to what is now the works and village of Bournville. Here the comfort and welfare of the workman, and especially of the workgirl, were so well provided for that it all seems too good to be true.

Through a rustic wicket, along a winding path, amid overhanging tree and shrub and flower, the visitor makes his way to the chief offices,—a range of beautiful rooms, two stories high, built in the chalet style, and in the summer time running over with flowers inside and out. The wonder grows as the entrance is found to be a fair sample of the interior. The dining halls are spacious, well lighted, and decorated with pictures and flowering plants. Across the massive mahogany counter only the best food is served, at cost price. The workrooms keep up the glamour. They seem designed to make a pleasure of toil and to idealize it. Not merely

in the great essentials of light and air and temperature, but in a thousand little things which reveal a constant and inventive thoughtfulness, the welfare of the worker is kept in view. The retiring room for girls who fall sick during work, with skilled nurse in attendance, is furnished tastefully and luxuriously. The thermometer of the workrooms is carefully consulted, and even in July coolness is maintained. The organization of the work, like the structure, has for its end human well-being not less than industrial efficiency. The eight-hour day has long been established. Workers are allowed to talk at their work, provided the tone of conversation be not too loud.

The women are all habited in white, a costume which at once makes cleanliness imperative and adds immensely to the æsthetic charm of the factory. There are twenty-three hundred women employed at Bournville, and the Cadburys have arranged that this great army of women shall be officered entirely by women. In the selection of forewomen, special regard is had to their moral and religious character. The general impression left on the most casual visitor is that the girls are happy at their work.

The sight of the largest workroom, bright and airy and spotlessly clean, with the women all in white, cheerily busy, their faces lit up by frequent smiles, seems to suggest that labor has been redeemed from its primal curse. Yet this is a giant factory, giving employment to thirty-six hundred persons.

These ideal works are set in idyllic surroundings. The beauty of the private park which formerly occupied the ground is sedulously maintained and enhanced; its stretches of grass and glades and streams are given over to the recreation of the workers. For the men, there are playgrounds, open-air bathing places, baths, gymnasium, and refreshment bar in a highly ornate pavilion. For the

land miners in their fight for a "living wage," he liberally supported the Amalgamated Society of Engineers in its struggle for an eight-hour day, and he has openly sided with the Penrhyn quarrymen.

But it is on the crest of the housing wave that Mr. Cadbury has ridden into the mid-stream of the national life. How he has done so is suggestive both of the man and of the new age of which he is the pioneer. The old style of reformer would have built up a series of stately orations, closely reasoned, convincing, impassioned, or would have set the presses palpitating with lurid and brilliant articles fit to send the blood of the nation up to fever heat. The new style of reformer, typified by Mr.

Cadbury, does not trouble much with the rhetoric of press or of platform. He sets to work in a small way to do the thing that is needed; and when the thing is done and works, then he lets pen and tongue have play. His contribution to the housing question is the solid and accomplished fact of Bournville.

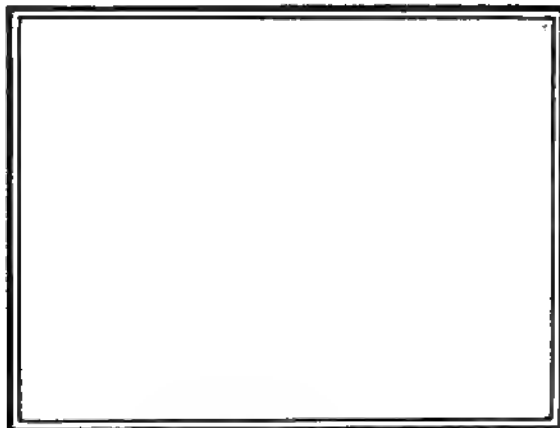
Bournville is a village paradise. It covers three hundred and thirty acres, and the beautiful cottages that line the winding road house nearly two thousand souls. Scarcely two houses are outwardly the same. Each workingman's cottage has been designed and developed with

WORKGIRLS' DINING HALL, BOURNVILLE WORKS.

women, the provision made is one great poem of Christian chivalry. The old mansion to which the park belonged has been turned into a residence for some fifty workgirls who are orphans, or too far away from home to reside there. The old vinery attached is carefully cultivated, and the grapes grown there are taken to the sick among the workers. For visiting invalid employees, two trained nurses are regularly engaged. The grounds of the hall form the women's playground, with special facilities for gymnastic development. They have a rustic pavilion of their own, and a picturesque cycle-house.

Everywhere there are proofs that Mr. George Cadbury and his firm take far more thoughtful care of their workpeople than most fathers do of their own children. Just as the firm has the best expert advice in chemistry and in color and in architecture, so Mr. George Cadbury has made a point of consulting experts in the much more important department of labor. He has sought the counsel of some of the best-known labor leaders—notably, Mr. John Burns. This unusual policy has been attended with the happiest economic as well as humane consequences. Mr. Cadbury believes strongly in organized labor. He has again and again intervened in industrial disputes with substantial help for the workers. He backed the Mid-

WORKGIRLS IN THEIR PLAYGROUND, BOURNVILLE.



Corner house, Mary Vale Road, Bournville.

Cottages in Willow Road, Bournville.

GLIMPSES OF MR. CADBURY'S COTTAGES FOR HIS EMPLOYEES.

as much care as a rich man usually lavishes on his own mansion. The very shops are dreams of structural elegance. Each house is provided with a garden back and front, and a strip of orchard at the foot of the back gardens serves as a veil of privacy to each. The allowance of ground to each house is at the rate of six hundred square yards.

Mr. Cadbury found in his adult-school visiting that the workingman living in crowded towns had practically no interest provided for his leisure hours, except in the public-house. So he resolved that in his model village each workman should have his garden, which would provide healthy and humanizing as well as remunerative recreation for the whole family.

The land, with houses and shops upon it, valued at \$900,000, has been made over by Mr. Cadbury to a trust at present composed of Cadburys, but to be filled up as they drop out by nominees of the Society of Friends, the Birmingham Corporation, and certain district councils. The trust is both ground landlord and house landlord to the village. It gathers in rents (generally about \$1.50 a week) now equal to \$26,230 a year. After necessary expenses have been paid, the balance is devoted to building new cottages and beautifying the estate. As the

rent roll increases, the trust is empowered to buy land and erect similar model villages in any part of Great Britain. The work has been going on for several years, and the founder did not intend to call public attention to it for several years more, but the large housing schemes of the London County Council and other municipalities, as it were, compelled him to give the world the benefit of his experiment. The world has not been slow to profit by his invitation. All last year and this, a stream of visitors, of all grades, many representing great civic bodies, have gone to Bournville, and have come away lost in admiration at what they have seen.

Bournville is Mr. George Cadbury's "propaganda by deed." It is a transcript of his character.

BICYCLE STORAGE-HOUSE, BOURNVILLE WORKS, WITH FREE STORAGE FOR TWO HUNDRED MACHINES.

A GARDEN CITY IN ENGLAND.

BY WILLIAM H. TOLMAN.

(Director of the American Institute of Social Service.)

HOW many efforts have been made to overcome the terrible curse of unhealthy and unsanitary homes, with their menace to society! Efforts like the Peabody Trust in London, the Guinness buildings in Dublin, the artisans' dwellings in Liverpool, and the City and Suburban Homes Company in New York rise like lighthouses in the sea of immorality, degradation, and crime existing under bad tenement-house conditions. Thus far, efforts like these have reached only an infinitesimal fraction of the dwellers in the city. A new movement, however, has just come into existence which contemplates the building of a city in the country. This is no Utopia, no castle in the air, no ideal of a dreamer, but a company promoted to develop an estate of thirty-eight hundred acres between Hitchin and Baldock, two villages within an hour's ride by rail from London. This vast estate has been contracted for and purchased at an expense of \$750,000,—less than \$200 an acre. The site is traversed by two important highways; the Great Northern Railway, from London to Cambridge, runs through it for a distance of two and a half miles; it is within a mile and a half of the main line on the north and the Midland on the south.

Much interest is already shown in the garden city by manufacturers, who are thinking of acquiring sites, for they are beginning to realize that the city does not provide room for the healthy expansion of their business, to say nothing of the opportunity of providing bright and cheerful homes for their employees at a lower rental than the worst city slum, as well as the provision of small gardens, recreation grounds, swimming pools, and educational and social organizations. This fact has been successfully demonstrated by Messrs. Cadbury, Lever Brothers, and Milne & Co. Then, too, certain industries are being compelled to migrate from the dusty and dirty city to rural communities, among which may be mentioned Aylesbury, St. Albans, Dunstable, and Becclea, towns which a few years ago were merely villages.

The promoter of the garden-city idea, which is now being worked out through the first garden city, is Ebenezer Howard, whose London office was chosen by him for the glimpse it gave of a bit of grass and trees. I found Mr. Howard

genial, forceful, and "dead in earnest." In reply to my inquiry for the essentials of his plan and its inception, he said: "I'll tell you, what we'll do. Next Thursday, I'll go with you to the site at Hitchin. Bring your photographer along, so that you may 'visualize' our site. At the same time, I will gladly answer all your questions."

The following week we went to Hitchin. In approaching the site, everywhere we found those beautiful English roads, smooth as floors, making riding, whether by carriage, bicycle, or automobile, an affair of the greatest comfort.

"Now you are fairly on the garden city," said Mr. Howard presently, as he called our attention to the rolling landscape and the diversity of meadows and woodland.

"You want to know about the beginning of

MR. EBENEZER HOWARD.

the plan? In 1890, 'Looking Backward' came into my hands. I devoured it at one sitting. I at once saw that it failed to connect the ideal with the present; in seeking the end in view, it

A TYPICAL RURAL SCENE NEAR THE SITE OF THE MODEL
GARDEN CITY.

made no allowance for the intervening obstacles. I do not claim any originality for the idea of a garden city, but I did set before myself the task of bringing together all the essentials of this great problem, working them out with methods and means that are perfectly feasible under existing social conditions of to-day.

"My scheme was in process of making for a long time, as I was a busy professional man; but in 1898, I set it forth in a book called 'Tomorrow,' in which I advocated the building of a town in the heart of some English agricultural district, where the most approved sanitation and engineering should be devoted to securing the most healthy and beautiful conditions of home life. I demonstrated its economic, commercial, and financial feasibility, as well as the enormous advantages to the community as a whole, to say nothing of the social impulse to the nation."

"What now is your problem, Mr. Howard?" I asked.

He replied: "How, in the midst of country air and beauty, to create opportunities of profitable industry, prospects of advancement, and the delights of social intercourse,—how to combine the advantages of the city with those of the country; in fact, to bring about what I may call the marriage of town and country, from which union may spring a new hope, a new life, a new civilization.

"Manufacturers, coopera-

tive societies, and private individuals will be invited to build factories, stores, and houses. Leases will be granted for these purposes which, while giving the fullest security to tenants for all improvements made by them, will secure to the community the increased value of the land, such increased value to be collected by the company and expended in local improvements. The company in certain cases, employers of labor, building societies, and private individuals, will build houses. A minimum space for a fair-sized garden to each house will always be allowed, and rigid restrictions against overcrowding will be enforced.

"The site of the garden city is purchased and vested in trustees, who will hold the land in trust, so that the increasing value of the land may go to the community. Each citizen, by paying to the trustees his rent, becomes his own landlord, and these rentals are to be used in repaying interest on the purchase money, for a sinking fund, in carrying out objects which elsewhere are defrayed by local taxation, and in the payment of taxes imposed by local authorities within whose area our site lies. In the garden city, the buildings will occupy only one-sixth of the area, thus giving opportunity for small farms, in order that the cultivators of the soil may be so near the city population as to benefit by their market for the produce.

"The wage-earners can secure a better home at less rent; there will be a saving of money, time, and energy in going to and from work;

ENGLISH COUNTRY LIFE OF TO-DAY.

milk, fruit, and vegetables will be cheaper, because produced on the community's own estate, thus saving in railway rates. As the system of distribution will be well organized, commodities generally will be cheaper. The worker, if he desires, can spend the time now wasted in uncomfortable, unhealthy traveling to and from work, in his own garden or allotment; and what he grows there will be an addition to his real wages.

"Though an industrial town, Garden City will be most desirable for private residents. The educational facilities will be good. The ample provision for open spaces, the freedom from smoke (regulations to this end being strictly enforced), and the healthy surroundings of their neighbors will offer great attractions. The town will be so planned that there will be no sites which are not healthy and desirable; but there will necessarily be choice sites, which well-to-do people can secure by paying a somewhat higher rate. So keen an interest will center in Garden

City as the birthplace of a great experiment that it will differ essentially from the ordinary dead-and-alive country town."

"What gave the great impetus to your idea? The purchase of this large tract did not come from the few friends who rallied about you in those early days."

"A conference early in September, 1901, at Bournville, where Mr. George Cadbury has built up an industrial garden city, enabled our friends to realize just what we wanted to do on a large scale, as they saw the beautiful cottage homes with their gardens, showing that these ideas had actually been realized in mortar and bricks."

So much for the origin, growth, and scope of the idea promulgated by Mr. Howard. Its concrete realization and the working details are duly set forth in a formal prospectus issued early in last September. The capitalization has been placed at \$1,500,000, with 59,400 shares at \$25 and 3,000 at \$5. On the directorate are well-known industrial leaders, like Cadbury,

Lever, Idris, and Neville, K.C. The population of the garden city will be limited to thirty thousand, retaining the greater part of the estate for agricultural purposes, with cumulative dividends of 5 per cent. per annum.

The company will themselves undertake, or procure on the lowest possible terms, the supply of power, light, and water, while the control of the town site from its commencement will permit of ample open spaces and allotments at a low price.

The directors,—with the exception of Mr. Howard, who will be the manager,—serve gratuitously. As they say: "Imperialism abroad and progress at home seem an empty mockery in the face of physical degeneration, the existence of which in our great towns is incontrovertible. Sound physical condition is surely the foundation for all human development, and the garden city contains all the elements of success that

will lead to a redistribution of the people upon the land, in which, and in which alone, as they believe, is to be found a solution of the problem, how to maintain and increase industrial efficiency without impairing the national physique."

Manufacturers and cooperative societies will share in all the advantages, and will have special inducements offered to them. A railway siding will be brought to their doors, and thus economies effected in terminal charges, in cartage, and in other ways. They will secure cheap motive power and light, abundance of water, and a site which would admit of the expansion of their works. Uninterrupted light and air would be secured by an agreement in the leases, and special advantages, no doubt, be afforded to trades requiring pure air and freedom from smoke. Those who take part in the experiment will also, by that very fact, secure an excellent advertisement for their products.

SCHOOL GARDENS IN GREAT CITIES.

BY HELEN CHRISTINE BENNETT.

(Member of the Committee on Industrial Education of the Public Education Association of Philadelphia.)

FACING the Hudson, on the west side of New York City, is a piece of condemned land awaiting improvement, ironically called De Witt Clinton Park. The most vivid imagination could not have conceived a more desolate spot than this was in the summer of 1902. Approached from the east, through filthy streets crowded with noisy, dirty urchins, it loomed up a dark blot upon the beautiful background of cool river, green hills, and blue sky. Rows of tumble-down houses, disused carts, piles of rubbish, stones, rags, and litter, among which the children played, made even the streets seem neat and orderly by comparison.

In the center of this plot of ground, it was evident that something of more than ordinary importance was occurring. The air was black with flying missiles, while excited groups of children ran hither and thither. To all inquiries came the reply, "We are getting ready for our farm." The idea of a farm in that unfavorable spot might have made the inquirer slightly skeptical; but had he stayed to see, the changes wrought were little short of marvelous.

The children's ready hands, assisted by those of older brothers and sisters, and by workmen from the Park Department of Manhattan, accomplished wonders. Stones and rubbish vanished.

The hard earth yielded to the plow and harrow. Load after load of rich loam was brought. A fence enclosed the selected space. Walks were laid out, and plots marked, and after days of earnest work, the "farm" was ready to receive the seed. Twenty-five children filed in at the gate and received a practical lesson in planting from the gardener. Teachers meanwhile registered names and properly tagged each "farmer." These tags, upon each of which the name of the child and the number of the plot assigned were registered, were certificates of ownership to be presented at the gate as a pass to enter. The lesson over, the children marched to their respective plots and planted the seeds given to them as they had been shown how to do by the gardener. New groups followed them, and soon in that desert waste rose an oasis of living green, orderly, neat, and picturesque.—the first Children's School Farm in New York City, conceived and directed by Mrs. Henry Parsons, a member of the Local School Board of the Eleventh School District of Manhattan.

One hundred and twenty-five farmers cared for their plots during the first season, but in the following spring, so many requests for "farms" were received that the park authorities decided to enlarge the space allotted, so that nearly three

THE BOYS' SECTION OF THE SCHOOL GARDENS, DE WITT CLINTON PARK, ON THE WEST SIDE, NEW YORK CITY.

hundred boy and girl farmers, varying in age from eight to eighteen years, were happily employed during the second summer,—that of 1903. Through the long, hot days of July and August, you might see them watering, weeding, hoeing, or quietly sitting around the central flower plot listening to a nature-study talk by the attendant teacher. Improvements upon the surrounding land followed rapidly in the wake of those upon the farm. Toward the east, the park department had placed a huge open-air gymnasium and playground. Toward the west, a tiny country-seat with a 12 by 18 foot farmhouse, a green lawn and flower-beds, a pavilion, a pig-pen, and a chicken-house had been added to the farm property. Still farther west stood a sand tent, and a second canvas formed a resting-place for tired mothers. A typical afternoon might have shown eighty or a hundred children busy in the garden; in the pavilion, a sewing class and a group weaving baskets for farm produce; in the tiny house, tea being served by neatly aproned housekeepers, while on the lawn the boys played croquet.

During September, groups of children from neighboring kindergartens flitted through the garden in the mornings, while the proud owners appeared when school hours were over, basket or bag in hand, ready to carry home their harvests and spade over their plots, leaving them clean and

neat, prepared to defy winter's coldest blast. As order emerged out of chaos, as stones and rubbish disappeared, the restless, careless horde of children grew daily more quiet and gentle. The wilderness that blossomed as the rose was not only the oasis in the desolate waste of ground, but also the hardened little lives, now softened by God's wholesome sunshine, the careless hands that grew tender with the delicate blossoms, the wayward feet that learned to run the narrow paths without swerving to right or left, the half-opened eyes, before seeing naught but the factories around, now dimly descrying the Hudson and the light on the hills beyond.

The history of the making of the New York garden is that of gardens in many cities. Back yards are no longer unsightly. In some cases, the stone flagging of the school yard has given place to miniature gardens of great beauty. Bare lots have become beautiful, and hundreds of boys and girls have grown daily stronger, happier, and better.

Historically, gardens for instruction have been an educational factor for many centuries. Nearly twenty-five hundred years ago, Persian boys received instruction in agriculture and horticulture, in gardens set apart for that purpose. Through the Middle Ages, gardens for educational purposes existed throughout central Europe. The first definite movement toward estab-

lishing school gardens was made in Austria, in 1869, when a law was passed instituting gardens in connection with all schools in country districts.

Statistics upon this subject are hard to get, but an idea of the extent to which this branch of education is carried in European countries may be obtained from the statement that in Austria there are no less than eight thousand school gardens; in Sweden, two thousand and sixteen; while in France, practical gardening is taught in twenty-eight hundred primary and elementary schools.

EXPERIENCE OF AMERICAN CITIES.

America has only begun to realize her opportunity in the value of school gardens as an educational force among the thousands of children in her crowded cities. An effort is being made to attract the attention of educators to the "Model School Garden" which, directed by Mr. Herbert J. Hemenway, of the Hartford School of Horticulture, will be a most attractive feature of the world's fair at St. Louis. If the Public Education Association of Philadelphia succeeds in its effort to have at least one school garden opened in the summer of 1904, the garden movement will have been at least inaugurated in four great Eastern cities,—New York, Boston, Philadelphia, and Washington.

The first school garden in America was started in Boston, by Mr. Henry S. Clapp, in 1890. The garden was originally intended for wild flowers, and so well has the work succeeded that at the present time it includes more than one hundred and fifty native wild plants. In 1901, a large vegetable garden was added to the flower garden. Last season, Boston had sixteen of these gardens; and with only this small number, Boston is yet far ahead of other cities in America in the school-garden movement.

The work at the Hartford School of Horticulture, under its capable director, Mr. Hemenway, has attracted considerable attention. Boys and girls come from the city to care for their gardens, of which last season there were one hundred and sixty-three, with the supply still far short of the demand.

At the Massachusetts State Normal School, at Hyannis, Mass., a portion of the campus was converted into a garden, which, from a commercial standpoint, was ably conducted. Each pupil was provided with a blank-book, into which he copied bills of the produce sold, the deposits at the bank, and the checks drawn.

While not connected with any educational institution, the boys' gardens of the National Cash Register Company, at Dayton, Ohio, have

been most important in the results that they have effected. The gardens here are 10 by 130 feet, or larger, and have a certain commercial importance. As an example of what can be done with a garden of this size, "one boy provided a family of five with vegetables during the entire season, and in addition to this, made five dollars." A competent gardener instructs the children in their work. There are various gardens in other cities in connection with schools or settlements, but the work is extremely irregular.

An idea of the cost of maintaining a school garden of one-half acre, for two hundred and fifty children, during the first season may be obtained from the following rough estimate given for Philadelphia:

Preparation of ground, including fertilizers.	\$ 35.00
Fencing, tool-house, and tools.....	225.00
Literature, insect mounts, materials for simple experiments.....	10.00
Seeds and plants.....	30.00
Total.....	\$300.00

THE WORK OF SUPERVISION.

This estimate does not include the salaries of the attendant teachers and the gardener or laborer. Trained teachers are more valuable than agriculturists without knowledge of pedagogical methods. Teachers not versed in agriculture may be supplemented by a good gardener; if, however, the teachers do understand gardening, a laborer may take the gardener's place. This man occupies an important position in the work. He supplies the place of a janitor, and assists the children in any work that is too heavy for them, such as breaking up earth with a pickaxe or managing a fifty-foot hose. During the early summer and fall, when the children are at school most of the day, he acts as a watchman, sending away truants; and during this time, when weeds grow rapidly and the children's hours of work are few, he also assists in keeping the garden clean.

The supervisor of the garden must be a competent teacher. She should be a woman that is capable of supervising and directing the work of preparing the ground, laying out plots, and erecting buildings. As she will necessarily have to plan the laying out of the garden and direct both children and workmen, some knowledge of surveying, plotting, and draughting is indispensable to her. Upon the supervisor also falls the duty of engaging workers and the responsibility of overseeing each step. She must make the estimates and purchases of seeds and plants, and the whole government of the practical gardening is to be planned by her. In addition to this, she usually gives daily nature-

GIRLS AT WORK IN THE SCHOOL GARDENS, DE WITT CLINTON PARK.

study talks, which must be adapted to the varying ages of the children. As harvesting progresses, accurate records of produce per child, the attendance of said child, and the effect of the work upon his physical, mental, and moral being must be registered. All of these steps are worth while, because gardening is yet in its infancy, and because statistics must be obtained with which to convince those that are as yet unwilling to embrace the idea of its merit. Such individual records, kept for two hundred and fifty children, to be afterward added, balanced, and the average found, more than fill the teacher's time during the hours in which the children are at school. Many interruptions to this work occur in the form of visiting classes, to which the supervisor explains the work of the garden. To have seeds planted and brought to maturity means an early start to the garden. The proper period for a garden is from May 15 to October 15. The work of the supervisor, however, begins the first of May, with the original plotting and planning, and extends until about a week after the garden closes. It is only finished when a record of each day of the summer's work has been completed. The assistant teacher is needed only in the afternoons and on Saturdays, during the spring and fall, when children attend only after school hours, but during the vacation period she is needed for the entire day. The laborer is indispensable throughout the entire six months that the garden is open.

Trained teachers are somewhat difficult to find. Both Boston and Washington have foreseen this difficulty, and are preparing young women for garden work,—Boston by means of the Science Department of her Normal School, and Washington by a special course for normal students, given at the school by Prof. S. C. Corbett, horticulturist of the United States Department of Agriculture.

In Porto Rico, where school gardens are maintained by the United States Government and are connected with every public school, teachers are regularly trained for the work in a course of theoretical and practical lessons on agriculture.

NATURE-STUDY MATERIAL FOR SCHOOL WORK.

The Public Education Association of Philadelphia has been conducting correspondence upon the subject of school gardens. The letters received seem to show that gardens have been connected more frequently with public schools than with private institutions, and that while the work has never been compulsory upon either teachers or pupils, giving as it does healthy out-of-door study, it has proved a popular novelty wherever undertaken. Unfortunately, the lack of space in great cities restricts the privilege of practical gardening to a comparatively small number of schools. A similar reason, with the consequent dearth of accessible material, has been given for the lack of properly conducted nature-study in our public schools. In this re-

spect, Europe is far ahead of America. In Berlin, for instance, there are special gardens, maintained by the municipality, in which flowers, shrubs, and vegetables are grown in order that specimens required may be daily picked and sent in wagons hired by the city to those schools so situated that gardening is an impossibility for them. It has been suggested and advocated by at least one associate superintendent of schools in New York City, Mr. Gustave Straubenmüller, that a portion of Central Park be set aside for this purpose, and that specimens from its school

garden be then sent daily to schools in Manhattan. Other parks that are used little by the public might fulfill a similar function. At present, this seems to be the only solution of the problem of supplying schools with proper materials for nature-study. As a new idea, this may seem preposterous; but the day of experiment is past,—nature-study and gardening have become important educational factors, and thinking men and women are devising means to bring them within reach of every child in the public schools.

THE YELLOW-PINE LUMBER INDUSTRY IN THE SOUTH.

BY W. WATSON DAVIS.

RUSSIA leads the world in the planting of forests; the United States, in their wholesale destruction. Yet this vast destruction means vast wealth to the nation, and is the result, in part, of that cry going up over the entire civilized world, "More wood."

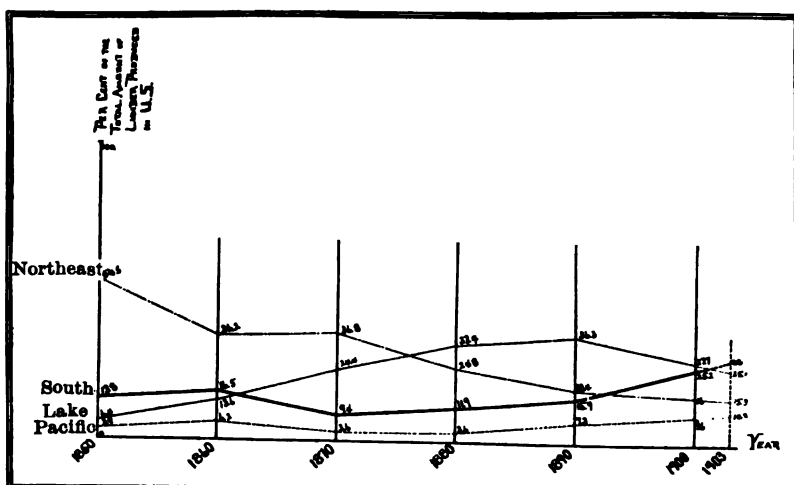
Few Americans,—in fact, few lumbermen,—realize the extent of the lumber industry of this country. We read with wonder the value of the iron, the coal, and the petroleum produced in the United States. Likewise, the production of American gold and silver means tremendous wealth. The vastness of the wheat crop is almost beyond conception. Yet the value of all iron, coal, petroleum, gold, silver, platinum, nickel, aluminium, zinc, lead, copper, and wheat produced in the United States during 1895 was \$116,000,000 less than the value of the timber crop five years earlier.

In 1900, lumbering ranked fourth among the great manufacturing industries of America, exceeding even the leader, iron and steel, in the number of men employed and the capital invested. In America, this industry is more highly developed than in any other part of the world.

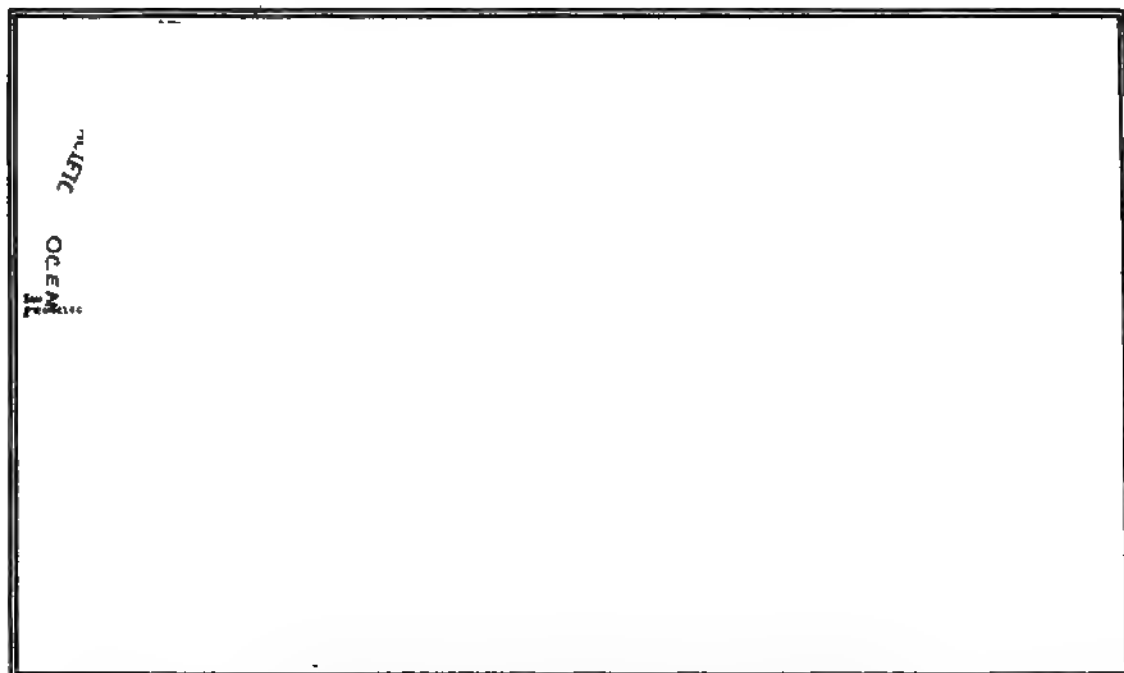
There are four distinct

lumber-producing districts in the United States,—namely, the Northeastern, comprising the northern New England States, New York, and Pennsylvania; the Lake, comprising the States of Wisconsin, Michigan, and Minnesota; the Pacific, comprising the States of Washington, Oregon, and California; and the Southern Yellow Pine, included in eleven States,—Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, and Missouri.

Of these four lumbering districts, the Southern to-day stands first. Here are situated 43 per cent. of the sawmills, here is employed 50



A DIAGRAM SHOWING PROGRESS AND RELATIVE IMPORTANCE, COMPARED WITH NATIONAL OUTPUT, OF THE FOUR GREAT LUMBERING DISTRICTS IN THEIR COMBINED LUMBER PRODUCT.



A MAP SHOWING THE LOCATION OF THE FOUR GREAT LUMBER-PRODUCING DISTRICTS IN THE UNITED STATES, WITH THE GENERAL DISTRIBUTION OF YELLOW-PINE TIMBER IN THE SOUTH.

(Approximately speaking, the stand of yellow pine per acre is about as follows: Florida, 2,500 feet; Alabama, 5,000 feet; Arkansas, 5,000 feet; Mississippi, 8,000 feet; Louisiana, 8,500 feet; Missouri, 4,000 feet; Texas, 5,000 feet; North Carolina, 4,000 feet; South Carolina, 4,000 feet; Georgia, 4,000 feet; and Virginia, 3,500 feet.)

per cent. of the labor, here is produced 28 per cent. of all American lumber and 37 per cent. of American lumber manufactured from coniferous trees, and here is the region which at present is taking the greatest strides forward in development.

The most important timber of this section is yellow pine. All other varieties, taken together in comparison, form only a small aggregate.

In all sections, with all varieties of timber, lumbering consists of four grand stages,—timber, logging, manufacturing, and the market. To obtain a clear idea of the industry, it must be considered separately under these heads, which deal, respectively, with the standing raw material, the gathering of this material, the converting into the finished product, and the selling of this product.

THE STANDING TIMBER.

The amount of standing yellow-pine timber in the South was estimated by the Government, in 1900, to be 300,000,000,000 superficial feet. This seems rather excessive when judged in comparison with other estimates by practical and well-posted Southern lumbermen. There is much reason for believing that the fullest figures

on this subject would at present be less than 200,000,000,000 feet.

Mr. R. A. Long, of Kansas City, an acknowledged authority on standing timber in the South, in 1902 estimated the amount of Southern yellow pine to be 187,250,000,000 feet. This was over a year ago, and each year means the destruction of large tracts of forest. Therefore, only taking into account timber-land with enough timber growing on it to be considered of profitable development by present methods, there are to day, in round numbers, 32,000,000 acres of yellow pine, with a total stand of not far from 177,000,000,000 superficial feet.

The distribution of this timber is approximately as follows:

State.	Number of acres.	Number of superficial feet.
Alabama.....	2,250,000	11,250,000,000
Arkansas.....	2,000,000	9,000,000,000
Florida.....	5,000,000	12,500,000,000
North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, and Georgia.....	7,000,000	28,000,000,000
Mississippi.....	5,000,000	40,000,000,000
Louisiana.....	4,500,000	38,250,000,000
Texas.....	5,000,000	36,000,000,000
Missouri.....	1,500,000	2,000,000,000

Thus, it is seen that the bulk of the timber lies

in the States of Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas. In these States, the timber is thickest, averaging about 8,500 feet per acre in Louisiana, and slightly less in the other two States.

As a region of standing coniferous timber, the South holds second place, as shown by this table :

Pacific coast.....	575,000,000,000 feet.
South.....	177,000,000,000 "
Lake region.....	85,000,000,000 "
Northeast.....	50,000,000,000 "

The Pacific is certainly the leading lumber district of the future ; the South of to-day, and the other two,—the Lake and the Northeast,—are fast becoming the regions of yesterday.

From present prospects, it will not be very long before the South also will become a back number. "In five years," says an eminent authority, "the amount of white pine produced will have been reduced to 1,500,000,000 feet annually. Of this deficiency, yellow pine should supply at least 60 per cent., or, in round numbers, 1,000,000,000 feet." Now, the present amount of yellow pine cut per annum is 9,500,000,000 feet, which at the end of five years would amount to 47,500,000,000 feet. Take this from the present total stand, 177,000,000,000 feet, and there is left 129,500,000,000 feet, which, divided by 10,500,000,000 feet, the annual cut at the end of five years, will give, in round numbers, twelve years. Hence there seems much ground for believing that within seventeen years, or at the most twenty, Southern yellow pine will have ceased to be an important commercial commodity.

Growth of timber will amount to little, for we are increasing nearly 3 per cent. annually in population, and, according to Professor Fernow, 10 per cent. per capita in the consumption of wood.

HOW THE LOGGING IS DONE.

There is no phase of the yellow-pine industry which is more interesting to the investigator than the gathering of the raw material,—the logging department. Methods of logging in the South vary with localities and conditions, but, on the whole, are distinct from those employed in the Lake region and on the Pacific coast. Although there are some independent timber camps, the great majority of the mills in the yellow-pine belt operate their own logging departments.

The elemental points in logging are,—the felling of the timber, the sawing of the logs into proper lengths, and the transporting of these logs to some one place for further transportation to the sawmill. Twenty years ago, water was almost the only means by which timber could be transported from a distance to the mills in any quantity. At present there are over two thousand miles of railroad in the South, built

REPRESENTATIVE LABORERS IN A SOUTHERN LOG CAMP— "SAWYERS."

for hauling timber. These log roads, with equipments, are valued at \$9,696,000, while all log roads and equipments in the Northeast, the Lake, and the Pacific districts are valued at \$8,953,000,—over half a million less. There are many milling plants in the South which operate more than fifty miles of log road.

THE LOGGERS' DAILY LIFE.

Life in a timber camp is of that rough-and-ready sort which appeals to all lovers of the open air and the forest. The men who lead this life are bronzed, sturdy fellows, ignorant and light-hearted, working from the first streaks of dawn till sunset, when they return to camp,—sometimes a cluster of tents, sometimes a few rude huts, sometimes the more modern camp-on-wheels, composed of railroad cars stationed on some switch of the log road and moved as the timber line recedes. This last type of camp, with its dining-car, cook-car, provision-car, sleeping-cars, and stables, is a novelty much less picturesque and romantic than tents and pole huts, but far more comforting to the weary men and beasts that return at evening, especially during the winter months.

As day breaks, and the sleeping camp sudden-

ly awakes, the men pile out for breakfast in one confused crowd. But with breakfast over, the crews separate. Armed with keen axes and long crosscut saws, off trudge the "sawyers" in pairs. Shouldering their pliant black-snake whips and hallooing to their oxen, into the forest go the "teamsters." To the log-landing on the railroad hurry the "loading crew," accompanied by the "scaler," who puts in his grimy account-book the dimensions of each log before it is sent on to the sawmill, ten, twenty, or possibly fifty, miles distant. Over these crews of laborers are "bosses," and in charge of all logging operations is a general superintendent.

The laborers are usually white men, the backwoods class, although in some sections negro labor is found. In the log camps of Texas and western Louisiana, many Swedes from the Lake States are em-

ployed. These laborers, in Southern log camps, receive much less than those in the Lake and the Pacific regions, and wages in the Southern States along the Atlantic coast are lower than in the States farther west.

THE FELLING, CUTTING, AND HAULING.

The ordinary Southern sawmill of the larger type, cutting 15,000,000 feet per annum, usually employs about twelve sawyers,—six pairs,—who will fell from one hundred and eighty to three hundred trees a day, the number, of course, depending on the size of the timber. This size varies greatly, tending all the time to become smaller and smaller. At present, yellow-pine logs range from ten to twenty inches in diameter at the small end, sometimes dropping as low as eight. The length from base to first limbs is ordinarily from thirty to seventy feet.

When the fallen tree has been cut into proper lengths, the logs are hauled to the landing on the log road or river bank. In the flat, marshy sections of the South, the steam "skidder" is now commonly used for this purpose. The most usual method, however, is the ox or mule team. Eight oxen compose a team. Yoked in pairs, they draw a huge, two-wheeled cart, called a "carry-log," from the mighty axle of which, suspended by hooks and chains, hangs the log. From eight to twelve teams are required to transport the cut of a crew of six pairs of sawyers.

After the timber has been felled and hauled to the landing, comes the final stage of work in the log camp,—the loading of cars, which is done

A REPRESENTATIVE TYPE OF
NEGRO LABOR IN A SOUTHERN
SAWMILL.

LOADING LOG-CARS BY ANIMAL POWER.

by either animal power or the giant steam loading-crane. In the former method,—by far the most common at present,—the timber is rolled on to the car up skids by means of a cable fastened to the car and passing under and over the log. To the other end of the cable are hitched oxen or mules.

Including the price paid for "stumpage,"—standing timber,—the operating of the logging department is an expensive branch of the average lumberman's business, being often in the neighborhood of 60 per cent. of the total running expense.

This last fact depends largely on the value of stumpage. This value, varying from 75 cents to \$3.50 per thousand feet, usually ranges between \$2.00 and \$3.00, and is based on the grade of timber, its thickness, and its accessibility to transportation. The price of stumpage is increasing rapidly. The standing timber is passing into the hands of a few. More than half of all Southern yellow pine is owned by less than one hundred individuals and companies. About 45 per cent. of the standing timber in the Southern pine belt is controlled by lumbermen. As time goes on, the number lessens and timber becomes dearer and dearer. Probably this very fact will aid in solving the problem of Southern forests, for

the timber, passing into the hands of a few, will give those few control of the situation, and, no longer swept on by unending competition, they will be able to become foresters.

LUMBER MANUFACTURING IN THE SOUTHERN PINE BELT.

There are almost ten thousand sawmills in the yellow-pine belt of the South, varying from the tiny portable mill, which cuts yearly 100,000 feet, to the colossal modern forest-destroyer, employing hundreds of men, requiring miles of log road, and producing 50,000,000 feet per annum. Of these ten thousand sawmills, only two hundred and thirty-one were reported in 1900 to have a capacity of 10,000,000 feet and up. Think of what a swarm of little ones there are! North Carolina has the greatest number of these small mills,—over eighteen hundred,—while Louisiana has the greatest number of large modern plants. Most of the mills of the larger type are built on the bank of some body of water. There are three reasons for this: first, to be able to handle logs easily and cheaply; secondly, to have a receptacle for storing logs; thirdly, to be in a position to receive logs transported by water.

The amount of money invested in the South

ern yellow-pine lumber industry, based on the census report for 1900, was \$150,000,000. At present, it is no doubt far above this amount.

Throughout the South are found the three different styles of sawmill,—the gang, the circular, and the band. The most common is the circular. In many sections, especially in the States of Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, and Missouri, the band, which is the latest of the three styles, is fast replacing the circular.

A big sawmill in operation is a fascinating sight. There is the roar of machinery, the clanking of chains, the thud of falling lumber, and, clear and sharp above all, the shriek of the saw, as, revolving with the velocity of lightning, it plunges through what was probably a few days before a monarch pine in a virgin forest. Back and forth tears the log-carriage, and, on "live-rollers," forward, ever forward, rushes a solid stream of lumber, first to the kilns, then to the planing mills, and then to the world,—Chicago, New York, England, Africa.

The output of Southern yellow-pine mills during 1902 was over 9,500,000,000 superficial feet, which, by a conservative estimate, was valued at \$100,000,000. Few people at first form

any adequate idea of how much lumber this means. If this lumber were in the form of boards one inch thick and one foot wide, and these boards were put end to end, they would form a continuous belt running from the earth to the moon over seven times! Again, if this lumber were loaded on cars, the train would extend from New York to San Francisco, the engines hauling the load reaching over one hundred miles. And this is only one year's output. Next year it will be greater. With less than three-fourths of this amount of lumber could be built an edifice large enough to accommodate every man, woman, and child in the United States, giving each sixteen square feet of ~~floor~~.

During 1900, Georgia, where the industry has been longest-established, led in the production of yellow-pine lumber, with over a billion feet; while Missouri produced the least,—158,000,000 feet. These very facts as to the volume of output and number of establishments bring up the question of labor. As has been stated, most of the labor in logging camps is white. On the other hand, that in the mills is usually black. The common laborer in both departments

LAND STRIPPED OF ITS TIMBER.

receives from 75 cents to \$1.50 per day, the average wage being about \$1.10.

The increasing degeneracy of the negro and his migration into the city to loaf is beginning to be felt in the sawmill world. Every day this class of labor, which is the only class available, becomes more unreliable.

Unions have had very little effect on the labor of Southern sawmills and logging camps. This is so chiefly from the following reasons: the labor consists either of negroes in the manufacturing department, or poor backwoods whites in the logging. The former are ignorant, are not especially desired as brother unionists by white union men, lack aggressive leaders, and, above all, as a class, lack the aggressive enterprise of the Caucasian. The latter are scarcely less ignorant than the average negro, are out of touch with civilization, and are scattered sparsely over a large area of forest land, making anything like concerted action very difficult.

The government reports for 1900 show that there were 149,908 laborers in the lumber industry of the States in which lies the yellow-pine belt. This probably means that the number of laborers in the yellow-pine industry is over 130,000. These men draw yearly a combined wage of \$35,000,000, and help to put forth a

product which finds its way into almost every part of the civilized world.

THE MARKET FOR SOUTHERN PINE.

The seaports figuring conspicuously in the exporting of yellow pine are,—Brunswick, Ga.; Pensacola, Fla.; Mobile, Ala.; Gulfport, Miss.; Pascagoula, Miss.; Sabine Pass, Texas; and New Orleans, La. Pensacola is the largest exporter, with Mobile a close second.

The importance of these last two ports may be realized by a glance at the following figures:

	1902.	1900.
Total export of yellow pine.	900,742,088 superficial feet.	
Export of yellow-pine lumber and timber from Pensacola.	283,904,088 superficial feet.	337,415,577 superficial feet.
Export of yellow-pine lumber and timber from Mobile.	236,935,472 superficial feet.	228,000,451 superficial feet.
Total export of lumber and timber from the United States.	1,458,110,208 superficial feet.	

A study of these figures shows that in 1902 the exports of Pensacola and Mobile, taken to-

gether, formed 55 per cent. of all yellow pine sent to other countries, and over a third of all lumber and timber shipped from the United States. Last year, Pensacola shipped to one hundred and thirty-two foreign ports, and Mobile to one hundred and eight. These ports are scattered in every quarter of the globe,—England, France, Germany, Holland, Spain, Italy, the West Indies, Egypt, South Africa, Asia Minor, South America, and so on almost indefinitely. Strange to say, the price of yellow pine is less to-day than it was twenty years ago. Raw timber has been rapidly consumed and has increased in value, but the finished product,—lumber,—has not kept pace. The reasons for this are probably many and complicated, but at least two of the obvious ones are,—overproduction in the South and the rapid and great development of the Lake and Pacific districts.

There are three distinct markets for Southern yellow pine,—the local, the foreign, and the domestic. The local consumes at present about 15 per cent. of the output, the foreign 10 per

cent., and the domestic 75 per cent. Hence, it is seen that into the interior and Eastern States goes the bulk of Southern yellow pine. The lumber in this last-named trade is generally kiln-dried and dressed, while to foreign countries are sent rough lumber and great quantities of square timber.

THE FORESTRY PROBLEM.

At present, there is ruthless destruction and waste going on in Southern forests,—destruction which, in years to come, will be wondered at. What were, a short time ago, virgin tracts of timber-land now are blackened, desolate barrens, swept yearly by forest fires, producing nothing except scrub oak and gnarled, little field pines, each year becoming more hopelessly an unprofitable desert.

The attention of all lovers of trees and native game should be directed toward our Forestry Department. Can it save and restore? If it succeeds, not only will a great economic problem be solved, but a thing of beauty be created for the future sons of our land.

SHIPPING SCENE IN THE HARBOR OF PENSACOLA, FLORIDA.

HAS RUSSIA ANY STRONG MAN?

BY E. J. DILLON.

[The particular value and strength of this article is in the fact that it has come direct from St. Petersburg, from the authoritative pen of a student and clear thinker, whose residence of many years in Russia fits him in an unusual way to discuss Russian conditions and men. Dr. Dillon is one of the best-informed of Englishmen on the empire of the Czar.]

RUSSIA possesses very few conspicuous and seemingly no great men at the beginning of one of the most fateful periods of her checkered history. At home, the thinking and the working classes live in a continuous ferment of passive resistance to the daily manifestations of bureaucratic authority,—a ferment much too intense and widespread, it would seem, to be amenable to the palliative or coercive measures hitherto employed against it with success. Abroad, a series of complications has arisen which threatens to undermine the paramount position occupied by Russia in the hierarchy of nations for over a decade; and as yet the men capable of steering the ship of state clear of both or either of these dangers have not come to the front. Dexterous and conscientious officials are, indeed, numerous enough at the apex of the social pyramid, but they are mostly individuals to whom uniforms, rank, and decorations impart the appearance of intellectual or administrative talents which many of them in reality sadly lack.

REPRESSION BY THE BUREAUCRACY.

From this striking fact, however, it would be a mistake to draw the inference that there are no master spirits among a people of nearly one hundred and fifty millions. There may be, undoubtedly there are, many men of superior parts, possibly more than one individual of real genius, who, under such circumstances as prevail in the United States, France, or England, would be able and ready to take the tide in the affairs of their country at the flood. But in Russia, it is affirmed, they are condemned to obscurity. The impersonal system of bureaucracy acts, people complain, as a scythe cutting off, as it were, the heads of those who rise above the low level of the average *tshinovnik*, or official. For the man who has not donned the state uniform in his youth, and been duly ground in the administrative mill, even though he were a Bismarck and a Napoleon combined, there is no legal avenue to power or influence. He is condemned to inactivity and silence under pains and penalties which, during the past few weeks, are understood to have been intensified. His whole duty is to

hearken and obey; his greatest crime, to criticise or oppose those whom chance or seniority has placed at the head of the administration. These are plain facts which almost every Russian will avow; whether the principles underlying them are sound or the reverse, is a question which I am not now concerned to discuss. Instances of how the system works, eliminating from the lists every gifted man who lacks the hall-mark of bureaucracy, are numerous. Two will suffice as illustrations. In the ecclesiastical sphere, Russia has for ages suffered from a dearth of men uniting the breadth of view which learning bestows with the apostolic zeal whose source is religion. Hence sectarians of every shade of opinion and almost every conceivable rule of life have drawn scores of thousands of religious souls away from the orthodox Church. At last, a true apostle arises in the ranks of the orthodox clergy, a man of spotless life, of natural and fervid eloquence, free from pedantry, burning with zeal for his fellow-men,—a sort of Henry Ward Beecher of the masses. His word is a magnet to draw men; thousands flock around him, a keen interest is awakened in the breasts of the lowest members of society in religion, morality, and clean living. But as Father Petroff was considered to have left the traditional, narrow groove, to have neglected to accumulate the cut-and-dried phrases in which his brethren have been wont to deal for centuries, his light was suddenly put under a bushel, and he was forbidden, a few months ago, ever to deliver an address to the people again unless it had first received the approval of his superiors. Once more, I am not finding fault with the system, but merely offering it as an explanation of a phenomenon which would otherwise seem unintelligible to Americans.

HOW ORIGINAL THINKERS ARE TREATED.

Another instance is the marshal of nobility of the province of Orel, M. Stakhovitch. A man of immense capacity for work, of high administrative ability, of varied reading and of moderate views, he would in any other country of Europe have long ago taken his place as the chief of the conservative party. In Russia, where

there are no political parties, he is regarded, and indeed treated, as an incorrigible radical, whose ideas are subversive and whose influence is pernicious. His work in the *zemstvo*, or district council, excited the admiration of all who desire to see that popular institution develop into a legally recognized form of local autonomy. The district council which he set himself to revive was but a skeleton a few years ago; yet in a very short time, he had imparted the breath of life to the dry bones, and the *zemstvo* thereupon improved existing schools, created new ones, adopted measures against disease, alcoholism, ignorance, and petitioned the government to extend its power or else to continue the good work on the same lines. But M. Stakhovitch ruined his career and immediately damaged his cause by an act which would be judged less harshly abroad than in Russia; he delivered an eloquent speech before the missionary congress on liberty of conscience, believing that without that liberty neither Christian nor other missionaries have much chance of converting a benighted people. But the theme is tabooed in Russia, the thesis is condemned, and M. Stakhovitch gave great umbrage to the official world by his temerity. He was, however, at once elected marshal of the nobility, and invested with all the powers which his fellow-subjects were able to confer upon him. But the utmost they enable him to achieve is to mend the rural roads, appoint rural doctors, suggest the names of school-teachers, and have statistics gathered, sifted, and published. Stakhovitch's qualities, however, may be measured by the significant fact that he has not only gained prominence independently of state service, but that his name is known from one end of the empire to the other, and has become a clarion to thousands of his fellow-countrymen.

But even in the ranks of bureaucracy it is next to impossible for any man to acquire a degree of power or influence beyond that which his office bestows. It cannot always have been thus, seeing that the Czar, Alexander I., had a sagacious adviser of the caliber of Speransky, and Alexander II. more than one minister of high parts and spotless integrity like Milgatin. But the bureaucracy must have changed since then, or, what comes to the same, the conditions of advancement in its ranks have undergone a considerable modification. Russians explain it by saying that there is no cabinet, no joint responsibility, no unity of aims or coöperation of means, but that, instead of all this, ministers are often animated by distrust of one another, and each one vies with his colleague in the art of pleasing rather than in enlightened zeal in the public service. Hence a man of ideas, a swallower of

formulas, a real statesman who lacks the minor court graces, has no chance against his rivals.

THE RISE AND FALL OF WITTE.

Serghei Yulyevitch Witte was a minister of this type, a daringly original thinker who despised the pedantries of officialdom, thirsted for achievement, and could not content himself,—as, indeed, what genuine statesman ever could?—with command of a mere segment of the administrative circle, which he figures to himself as a wheel in movement. He held, and holds, that all departments of the administration, all measures of each ministry, all official acts and edicts on which the weal of the empire to any extent depends, should be coördinated to the one end. And as it was impossible to attain this object by the formation of a responsible cabinet,—inasmuch as an institution of that kind would smack of constitutionalism,—he sought to compass it by influencing all his colleagues by tightening and loosening the strings of the public purse. But the problem was insoluble; the Russian Gulliver was bound hand and foot by the threads of the pygmies, and if not exactly cast into outer darkness, was thrust into relative obscurity.

RUSSIA NOT READY FOR HIS REFORMS.

Any task to which he set his hand presupposed other tasks successfully achieved, and those other labors depended upon the good-will of colleagues who sometimes held views and pursued aims different from those of M. Witte, and at other times simply had other irons in the fire and could not give their attention to any questions of reform. It was thus that, in order to create a Russian industry, he postulated elementary and technical education which other ministers looked upon as a formidable solvent of the whole social fabric of the empire. One of the worst results of this one-sided policy of the government acting against M. Witte's scheme is believed to be the creation of a proletariat with an effective organization and the power which combination gives, but lacking the self-discipline, the moderation, and all the other correctives which are found in the same class among educated, and therefore more advanced, peoples. The results of this unfinished work bid fair to make themselves so keenly and, indeed, so painfully felt that if M. Witte only lives long enough he will be called upon, like the magician in Goethe's poem, to render the spirits harmless whom the half-initiated disciple conjured up and set at work.

Another of the faults of the late finance minister lay in his indifference to the art of pleasing. Neither by nature nor by choice is he a courtier.

He throws his loyalty—as many a truly devout person puts his praying—into his daily work. Thus he put an end to the ruinous fluctuations of the Russian ruble, introduced a gold standard, recreated the state bank, created an industry which passed through the crisis of infancy at the time of his fall, built the most extensive railway in the world, and was about to monopolize for the state some of the luxuries and necessities of life, while educating and training the people at home and maintaining peace abroad. Probably no more grandiose programme has ever been conceived in Russia since the days of Peter the Great. Exception may, indeed, be reasonably taken to some, nay, to many, of the schemes it includes, but almost every one hails two of them with unqualified delight: the raising of the intellectual and ethical standard at home and the preservation of peace abroad. “Most certainly I am in favor of education,” M. Witte assured me one day; “the schoolmaster is my ally; industry presupposes technical, and therefore elementary, instruction, and without both our people cannot compete in trade and industry with their rivals.” And there can be little doubt that he largely contributed to raise the percentage of Russians who can read and write to such a high level that among the recruits who recently entered Serbia, in Odessa, the number of illiterates was far and away the smallest ever yet recorded there.

WITTE AND THE FAR EAST.

The postulate of a home policy of this kind is necessarily friendship, or at any rate peace, with foreign states abroad. And this has ever been one of the fundamental maxims of M. Witte's programme. Whatever value he may have set upon the markets of Manchuria,—and he certainly estimated foreign trade much higher than any of his colleagues,—he would not have risked a war to acquire them. He was, indeed, preparing to invade all markets by degrees, but not by force. “First, let us supply our own industrial wants cheaply and well, and then we can compete with foreigners abroad,” he remarked to me, a few years ago. “But we must not put the cart before the horse,” he added.

If, therefore, M. Witte had been in the position of, say, Prince Gortchakof under Alexander II., the continuous ferment within the empire and the fateful complications without would, in all probability, have been successfully avoided. But even at the height of his power, when people spoke of him as almighty, his influence was restricted almost to the limits of his own ministry. His opinion, indeed, was often asked on other matters as well, but it was very seldom

followed. And yet there was,—nay, there still is,—no other known man, be he minister or private citizen, in Russia who is as competent to tender advice on all the Sphinx's questions put to the Czar's government to-day as is M. Witte. Having been asked to point to the strong man of Russia, the political pilot capable of taking command of the ship of state during a critical period and of steering it safely into calm waters, I feel disposed to say that that man is M. Witte. Even now many of those who were his implacable enemies so long as he held office yearn to see him, not merely restored to power, but promoted to a position similar to that occupied by Prince Gortchakof half a century ago.

WILL HE AGAIN TAKE THE REINS?

That he ever became minister, despite his bluntness and that courage to speak the thought within him, which is perhaps not less useful than his gifts of insight and foresight, is not only a feat, but also a mystery or a curious freak of circumstance to most people. But a still higher testimony to his capacity is offered by the fact that he kept his post for so many years although beset with the intrigues, traps, and calumnious attacks of open and secret enemies. To the arts of the courtier he owes nothing. That M. Witte thus worked his way to the top of the hierarchical ladder by dint of inborn force, and maintained his place there for a considerable time, is but an exception which serves to bring out the general rule in greater relief. And that rule is seen most distinctly in operation in the light of the suddenness and the completeness of his fall. After having rendered great services to the state, and while working at the execution of a programme which had been over and over again accepted and approved, he was all at once struck powerless, owing to invisible influences which would have had no scope if the bureaucracy possessed the sense, rare among Russians, of the substantial unity of all state departments and of all aims of government.

If an official of M. Witte's worth fell a victim to such secondary causes, against which no degree of merit avails, what chance, Russians ask, have unofficial persons of making headway against the powerful current of officialdom? Hence it comes about that in order to discover genius, real greatness of soul, or intellect in any of the hall-marked men of contemporary Russia, something more is needed than mere acumen: invention. In Russian bureaucracy there would seem to be no room for men of strong will or extraordinary talents,—every display, not merely of independence of action, but even of originality of thought, being crushed by the strong grip of a colleague or col-

leagues desirous of meriting praise rather than of serving the state. Such, at least, is the complaint now continually uttered by Russians themselves.

BEZOBRAZOFF RECOMMENDS ALEXIEFF.

It may be well that considerations of this kind moved his majesty, the Czar, to test the fitness of a number of outsiders who had not passed through the administrative mill. It was certainly a generous idea, worthy of a patriotic monarch, and had there been any effective machinery for executing it, might have been fruitful of much good. But, in default of a regular and effective system such as exists in other countries, the choice of the new men was left pretty much to chance. Among the half-dozen outsiders whose views on the condition of the nation at home and abroad were asked and received, not one had previously given any proofs of his fitness to govern or advise. One of them, however, M. Bezobrazoff, concerning whom so much has lately been written in the foreign press, recommended to the favorable notice of his imperial master the man who is by many regarded as Russia's born leader during the present critical period of her history. That man is Evghenyi Ivanovitch Alexieff, vice-admiral of the navy and viceroy of the far East.

ALEXIEFF, THE MAN.

Before M. Bezobrazoff's visit to Manchuria, Admiral Alexieff was known as a conscientious and hard-working naval officer, such as Admirals Avellan and Skridloff were before him. But beyond this, no brilliant feats and no extraordinary career were expected for him. Born in 1843, of an Armenian father and a Russian mother, Alexieff received the ordinary naval education and training, and has ascended the hierarchical ladder in the usual humdrum way, without gaining any greater distinction than zeal in the service and a pleasing manner in social relations are wont to confer. He lacked even the open sesame of nobility. His father was the manager of the estate of Count Mordvinoff, of whose family one member has in every generation served the state in the imperial navy. Encouraged by him, young Alexieff entered the Naval School of St. Petersburg, an institution which nowadays receives none but the sons of noblemen, but was less exclusive forty-four years ago. His mother, a Russian lady and a member of the orthodox Church, is still living in the government of Poltava, in southern Russia.

Alexieff's ambition dates from his school-days, and comrades of his assure me that it was never

limited by the possibilities of the career he had chosen, but soared to quite imaginary heights. In this respect he widely differed from his brother, a man of modest aims and retiring disposition, who is now an obscure officer on the retired list.

Alexieff is capable of exercising a wonderful degree of self-restraint any length of time, never once uttering a word or betraying his emotions by a gesture, but at last, and with great deliberation, the pent-up passion bursts all bounds and sweeps away all kinds of restraint. This characteristic is illustrated by the story of how he braved the British Asiatic squadron in 1881—which, however, really belongs to Admiral Crown and not to Alexieff. Alexieff owes his promotion, which, seeing that he is already forty-three years in the service, can hardly be termed abnormally rapid, to his qualifications as a naval officer. He is clear-witted, cold-blooded, resourceful, a thorough gentleman in society, and a popular disciplinarian in the service. He keeps his subordinates well in hand, is noted for his impartial justice, and exerts a beneficent influence over his blue-jackets, which tends to bring out all their best qualities. Although he hates laxity, the fiber of his character is singularly free from that cast-iron rigor which provokes hatred and paves the way to insubordination.

A CLEVER, ALERT NAVAL OFFICER.

Alexieff was sent to the United States to take command of his first ship, the *Africa*, which was ever afterward one of the best-kept in the Russian navy. Noticing the havoc which a taste for drinking was working among the men, he introduced a series of reforms, based upon amusing and interesting games, in which he taught them to indulge during their leisure hours, the most proficient winning prizes. His next ship, the *Admiral Korniloff*, was in like manner kept in such apple-pie order as to excite the admiration or the envy of his brother commanders. For several years, Alexieff resided in Paris as the naval attaché of the Russian Government.

In Paris, Alexieff improved his knowledge of French, and showed himself dexterous in the management of affairs and gifted with considerable diplomatic tact, self-possession, and self-reliance. It was these qualities, and not any outburst of passion in Nagasaki, that gained him the post of commander of the Pacific Squadron in 1899, which had been well filled before.—first, by Admiral Hildebrand, and then by Admiral Skridloff. The Boxer rising in China offered Alexieff a further opportunity of displaying his tact, self-mastery, and resourcefulness, and he would in all probability have ended his career as minister of the marine had not fate

brought him together with the most influential of all the outsiders, M. Bezobrazoff, who had gone to the far East on a tour of inspection. This gentleman, not yet secretary of state, came under the charm of Alexieff, who confirmed him in his original but questionable views respecting China, Japan, and Korea, and finally suggested to his majesty the creation of a viceroyalty, and proposed Alexieff as the fittest person for the responsible position. The Czar accepted the idea, and Alexieff, who, in 1901, had been appointed adjutant-general, was in 1903 made viceroy. Three ministers found themselves unable to approve the new institution or the new man,—General Kuropatkin, the war minister, and the most distinguished strategist in all Russia; M. Witte, then minister of finance; and Count Lamsdorff, the minister of foreign affairs. Ministers in Russia, however, have but a consulting voice in the highest affairs of the state, and the dissentient voices of his majesty's three advisers were in this case disregarded. And not in this case only. Shortly before Christmas, Admiral Alexieff forwarded a telegram to St. Petersburg requesting the Emperor to authorize the mobilization of the Siberian troops. Again the war minister demurred and pleaded for delay, but the permission asked for was unhesitatingly accorded.

E. I. Alexieff is the first Russian admiral who, while retaining his position in the marine, discharges the duties of a high,—at present, the highest,—civil office as well. He nominally re-

ceives an annual allowance of 54,872 rubles, but in reality he draws 100,000,—or, say, \$53,190. The highest decoration he possesses is that of the White Eagle; but his friends,—or, at least, acquaintances who profess a warm friendship for him,—affirm that his ambition is now centered upon a countship, which will doubtless soon be bestowed upon him.

ALEXIEFF'S LIMITATIONS.

The viceroy looks younger than he is, bearing lightly the weight of his sixty years. His long, flowing beard, burning black eyes, with an occasional yellow sheen, and his somewhat prominent nose bespeak his Armenian extraction. He has had no classical education, no experience of politics, no time for meditation, and little taste for history. His prominent qualities are those of a clever naval officer, and it is in this, his own special sphere, that he may be reasonably expected to justify the high hopes which the bulk of his countrymen repose in him; as to his qualifications for political diplomacy, and for the administration of a vast territory in troublous times, many of them are very doubtful, holding that he possesses an alert mind with no originality, and that the source of his strength is courage and self-mastery rather than intellect or statesmanship. Unless events belie their forecast and he rises to the emergency, they will continue to assert in the future, as in the past and present, that bureaucracy in Russia is incapable of producing a single strong man.

RUSSIAN OPINION ON AMERICAN "MEDDLING" IN THE FAR EAST.

CABLED comments of the Russian press since the outbreak of hostilities in the far East have contained frequent references to alleged American "meddling," which, it is asserted, really precipitated the war. American sympathy, some of the Russian journals insist, has been the inspiration and incentive to Japan in her "treacherous attack" on Russia. Several accurate and authentic extracts from representative Russian opinion follow:

RUSSIA DECEIVED AS TO WHAT THE WORLD THINKS.

The *Vyestnik Evropy* (St. Petersburg), the serious review edited by Stasyulevitch, the organ of the intellectual liberal class of Russia, in its issue for February, complains that "all the ru-

mors of war and peace in the far East come to St. Petersburg, in the form of telegrams, from English and American sources, antagonistic to Russia."

This is the only material with which the Russian telegraph agency supplies the Russian public. It appears that this agency, in spite of its high-sounding name, serves only as a transmitting station for telegrams of foreign news agencies, and that the Russian press, not excluding the *Pravitelstvenny Vyestnik* (Official Messenger), is satisfied with this one-sided foreign material, without making any effort to set against it any information coming from Russian sources. Of what Russia says or does in any disputed diplomatic question, we learn only from London, Washington, or Tokio. . . . That the sentiment in Europe and America concerning Russia has radically changed during the

past years, seems to be an indisputable fact, against which our press-compatriots protest in vain. To explain the change that has taken place by any single event or incident would hardly be just. A concurrence of conditions worked together, evoking, for certain reasons, a lively interest abroad.

Continuing to discuss the hostile tone in the English and American press, the *Vyestnik* goes on to say :

AMERICAN INFLUENCE IN JAPAN.

An equally unpleasant spirit manifests itself in the American press, in which the motive of our internal politics plays a more marked and distinct rôle. The Americans compete with the English for the conquest of the east Asiatic markets, and our occupation of a part of Chinese territory is a direct loss to them, inconveniencing them in taking advantage of their commercial preferences, granted, according to treaties, to foreigners in China. But the irritation against Russia is aroused, in the United States, not so much by the occupation of Manchuria as by various other circumstances which give abundant material for bitter adverse criticism. In the American press, an active anti-Russian agitation is carried on, under the influence of the supposition that all kinds of lawless and violent acts are committed in Russia with the knowledge and assent of the authorities; and this supposition is given out as a fact which can in no way be doubted. Russia is represented as the stronghold of barbarism, and efforts are made to arouse against her such antipathy as exists against Turkey. This agitation is possibly only of a temporary nature, and its causes only incidental. Nevertheless, it has aroused against us public opinion in the United States and made possible the approach of the Washington cabinet to that of London for mutual opposition to Russia in the far East. . . . It should not be forgotten that back of the Japanese stands England, and that the United States is ready to act with England, and that in time China, also, may come out against us, realizing its solidarity with Japan in the Manchurian question. Alone, without friends and allies, the Japanese would never have allowed themselves to come out against Russia in such a decided manner, and, in all probability, would have looked for an understanding with us rather than a conflict.

AMERICAN TRUSTS AND THE WAR.

American trusts, according to the *Novoye Vremya*, of St. Petersburg, precipitated the war in the far East. This popular, jingoistic, anti-

Semitic daily of the capital, in a recent issue, said :

A storm is approaching from the West. . . . It is not a struggle between two kingdoms for a strip of land, but an actual war begun between the old world and the new, between the trade and industrial interests modestly crowded in western Europe and those of the United States, desirous of ruling the world. . . .

At the end of the last century, the mighty American Cæsar, the trusts, united in one political body, and grasping the power in their hands, began to form an active and careful association against industrial Europe. They built around the United States such a wall of tariffs that not one ton of goods could Europe throw over it. Thus, North America was lost for Europe. Driven out in this fashion from America, Europe proceeded, in 1897, to the far East, and made the Pacific the arena of its activity. Blinded by reciprocal competition, she did not, however, notice that the Americans at the same moment turned front and went to meet her. From the side of the same ocean, the first modest move was made by the occupation of the Hawaiian Islands. Then followed the attack on the oldest European power, Spain, when the United States, with one stride, not only lastingly set its foot upon Cuba, but, crossing the ocean, also on the Philippines, appearing face to face with retreating Europe.

Afterward, understanding full well that Russia is growing to be her chief antagonist in Asia, the manipulators of American politics, her oligarch, the Cæsar trusts, began to prepare themselves for the struggle with us. In order to remove the sympathy of the American people for us, they ordered Kennan to Siberia, who, having returned to America, began a series of lectures, delivered in prisoner's clothes and with a shaven head. An anarchist [Nihilist], Krapotkin, was conjured up, who became a lion in the American salons. They started the publication of the works of Russian authors whose relation to our national life is a negative one. . . . Further, in order to prepare the soil in the far East, armies of missionaries were dispatched there, who flooded Japan and China with their writings, and who, like the English East India Company, tried to turn China into an American India. . . . The whole activity of the United States is directed toward making China an industrial center ruled by American directors and viceroys in the form of American trusts and then drowning the whole East with the products of the cheap labor of China, thus driving Europe out of the Pacific. . . . In case of the slightest mishap in the tactics of our army, it will be seen how much western Europe will lose, and how far, on the other hand, the protector of China, the Americans, will reap the advantage.



A FEW OF THE LEADING RUSSIAN JOURNALS.

(At the top of the picture is the *Novoye Vremya*; at the bottom, the *Russkaya Vvedomosti*. The *Niva* is at the right.)

WHAT THE PEOPLE READ IN RUSSIA.

A CLEAR, accurate statement of what has actually happened with regard to the removal of the Russian censorship of news would be as follows: After considering a suggestion of Mr. Melville Stone, the Czar has abolished the censorship of the Associated Press cable news service. That is all.

The censorship in Russia is exercised over all printed matter, whether printed in the country or not. In the two capitals, St. Petersburg and Moscow, the daily newspapers are not actually subjected to the censorship. The censor, however, reads the printed sheet before any one else, and if it contains anything forbidden, the edition is suppressed. Editors are permitted to criticise the local administration, but not to say anything which can be construed as reflecting upon the higher authorities or the Church. Three warnings are given; the first consists in the prohibition of street sales, the second in a fine, the third means suppression of the publication. The strict censorship in St. Petersburg and Moscow has been abolished since the reign of Alexander II. The provincial newspapers, however, are still subjected to a burdensome censorship. Editors must submit proofs of

every article to the censor before they are published. This concession of the Czar has aroused considerable interest among Americans as to what Russians themselves read in the way of periodical literature.

A number of very excellent monthly reviews are published in Russia, most of them in St. Petersburg. The most dignified of these is the *Vyestnik Evropy* (European Messenger), which is a review of a very high literary tone,—as high as that maintained by the best German periodicals. Indeed, there are not many American magazines which can compare favorably with this Russian review for high literary tone and breadth and accuracy of treatment. The *Vyestnik Evropy* pays highly for its contributions, and its editor, M. Stasyulevitch, is one of the only two or three men in the empire with whom the censor rarely interferes. It covers the whole field of literature, politics, and science, and is liberal. It was in this review that most of the classics of Russian literature originally appeared before being translated into every European tongue and finding their way around the world. Turgenieff, Goncharoff, Dostoyevski, Pushkin, and Tolstoy, and, indeed, most of the great names in Russian

literature, are witnesses to the excellence and really literary character of the Russian magazines. Another of the high-class St. Petersburg monthlies is *Mir Bozhi* (God's World), which is progressive, educational, literary, and political. The *Russkaya Mysl* (Russian Thought) is one of the best literary and political monthlies of Moscow. The *Russkoye Bogatstvo* (Wealth of Russia) is another of the high-class literary, political, and economic monthlies. Its editor is the famous Korolenko. These four are the best, most dignified, of the Russian magazines, and for inherent excellence compare favorably with any others in the world. One of the popular monthlies in St. Petersburg is the *Narodnoye Khozaystvo* (People's Household), which treats of economic and social subjects.

There are very few good weeklies published in Russia. The best known is the *Niva* (Field), of St. Petersburg, an illustrated paper with an immense circulation. It is cheap in contents, and is made up principally of low-grade stories and adventures. The *Vsemirnaya Illustratsiya* (World Illustrated), of St. Petersburg, is an illustrated news weekly corresponding to the London *Graphic* or *Harper's Weekly*. Up to two years ago, Russia had an excellent weekly, *Nedelya* (Week), which has, however, been suppressed by the government for its liberal views. *Obrazovaniye* (Education) is a dignified weekly published in Moscow, and *Pravo* (Right), of St. Petersburg, is the lawyer's organ.

The daily press of St. Petersburg, Moscow, and Odessa is enterprising and well conducted. The best-known daily of the capital is the *Novoye Vremya* (New Times), edited by N. Suvorin. This is the jingoistic, sensational "yellow journal" of Russia. It is just now the organ of the ministry of the interior, and as Minister von Plehve's mouthpiece, it is given free rein, without interference by the censor. It is the most enterprising journal of the country, and its daily *feuilleton*, or love-story, is so widely read in both the capital and the "provinces" that the *Novoye Vremya* has usurped the field of the weeklies. The *Vyedomosti* (Gazette), of St. Petersburg, is owned and edited by Prince Esper Ukhtomsky, personal friend of the Czar, founder of the Russo-Chinese Bank and the Chinese Eastern Railway, and author of "Russia's Mission in Asia," and now a rear-admiral in the Russian navy. Prince Ukhtomsky is also free from the domination of the censor. He is perhaps the most influential living Russian editor. The *Vyedomosti* is liberal, with aristocratic tendencies. The *Grazhdanin* (Citizen), edited by Prince Mestchersky, is ultra-conservative and aristocratic. The *Novosti* (News) is liberal, with now

and then sensational tendencies. It is edited by Ossip Notovich, one of the well-known liberal lawyers of the capital. *Russ* (Russia), and the *Svet* (Light), both of the capital, are Pan-Slavistic and jingoistic, as is also *Vyedomosti*, of Moscow. The official announcements of the government are made through the *Pravitelstvennyy Vyestnik* (Official Messenger).

Outside the capital, and in addition to the Moscow journals already named, there are a number of newspapers of influence. The *Russkaya Vyedomosti* (Moscow) is liberal, and the *Kievlyanin* (Citizen of Kiev) is Pan-Slavistic, with recently developed liberal tendencies. In Odessa, the *Odesskiy Vyestnik*, the *Odesskiy Listok* (Little Gazette), and the *Novorossiyskiy Telegraph* (New Russian Telegraph) are influential dailies. Vladivostok has a journal of that name published three times a week. Tiflis has a semi-weekly called the *Kavkazskiy Krai* (The Country of the Caucasus), and Port Arthur has a daily (recently suspended) called *Novy Krai*. The *Courrier de la Bourse*, in French, and the *St. Petersburger Zeitung*, in German, are influential dailies of the capital, and the *Kronstadtskiy Vyestnik* is an official daily of Kronstadt. There are very few religious journals in Russia, the best known being the weekly *Tserkovnyy Vyestnik* (The Church Messenger), of St. Petersburg.

There are a number of excellent Jewish periodicals published in Russian, Hebrew, and Yiddish. The *Ha-Shiloah* (Channel) is a monthly published in Warsaw, in Hebrew, although printed

in Berlin to escape some of the severity of the censor. It maintains a high literary tone. There are three Hebrew dailies, two in St. Petersburg and one in Warsaw, and two weeklies and a daily, in Yiddish, in St. Petersburg. The Russian Jewish press is perhaps best represented by the

N. SUVORIN.

Voskhod (Dawn), with weekly and monthly editions, published in St. Petersburg.

As war opinion from Russia is of such interest to Americans, the Review publishes this month some significant extracts from editorials in representative Russian periodicals on what Russians regard as American influence in the far East.

AMERICAN LITERARY INFLUENCE ABROAD.

BY CHARLES A. L. REED.

THAT America,—by which, of course, is meant the United States,—has a wide and increasing influence among the countries of the world is apparent to the most casual student of current events. Thus, our foreign commerce, although only about half that of England, represents, nevertheless, a larger tonnage than the combined commerce of all the other countries of the world. This fact, when considered in connection with American influence, is of primary importance, because it is first through the instrumentality of foreign trade that the material phases, at least, of a country's civilization are carried to the knowledge of foreign peoples. The importance of this beginning becomes apparent when it is remembered that, according to the popular saying, letters and science follow in the wake of commerce,—movements which in the aggregate comprise a national propaganda. So far as America is concerned, however, its propaganda, judged by this rule, can hardly be said to have passed the initial stage; for while America is widely and favorably known for pork and beef and cotton, for steel rails and machinery, the subjective side of its civilization is far from being adequately recognized. This fact may be attributed to a number of causes, but to none with more probability than to the yet unsatisfactory status of the English language in countries to which it is an alien tongue; for the interest that strangers manifest in the language of a country must be accepted in an important degree as a criterion of their interest in the general civilization of that country.

THE STATUS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN CONTINENTAL EUROPE—A CONSULAR INQUIRY.

With the object of ascertaining whether or not American influence was being adequately extended through the extension of the English language in foreign countries, a circular letter of inquiry was sent, through the courtesy of the State Department, to the United States consular officers on the Continent of Europe and in Mexico. This letter called, among other things, for information relative to the approximate numbers of Americans and English, respectively, resident in each consular district; the number of natives, if any, who speak the English language; the extent to which the literature of America, as contradistinguished from that of England, com-

mands attention; the extent to which the English language is taught in the schools, colleges, and universities; and, finally, the existence of any organized efforts outside of regular educational channels to extend and popularize the English language. The replies, which were numerous, courteous, painstaking, and satisfactory, indicated that, while English commands a certain amount of interest in many localities and in many institutions, there are certain places and, indeed, countries in which it is practically disregarded. This is especially true of Spain, where it is a little surprising to discover that, in such institutions as the Universidad Central de España and the Escuela Superior de Diplomática, at Madrid, there is no recognition whatever of the English language. There seems to be nowhere in Spain an organized effort outside the schools to extend a knowledge of English, as indicated by reports from Madrid, Barcelona, Seville, Carthagena, Malaga, and Almeria. At Gibraltar, however, owing to the presence of the large English garrison, the English language is taught, as it is at both Corunna and Tarragona.

ENGLISH-TEACHING IN FRANCE.

The reports from France unite in indicating an apathy, even among the educated masses, toward the English language. There are, however, some hopeful signs. Thus, the University of Paris, the College of France, and the Sorbonne give great prominence to English, and their example is followed by the provincial universities, the *lycées*, *collèges*, and *écoles supérieures*. These efforts on the part of the state are seconded in various ways in different cities. Thus, at Dunkirk, lectures and instruction in English are given under the auspices of the Chamber of Commerce; at Lyons, similar instruction is given at the Palais des Arts, Mr. Covert, the United States consul-general, having been one of the lecturers during the last winter; there is a polyglot club at Rouleaux that gives prominence to English; there are numerous private circles devoted to English at both Marseilles and La Rochelle; and an English club of about forty members was recently organized under the auspices of the Société Industrielle of Rheims. In each of these instances the members are French, the social clubs of the English and American residents of Paris, Nice, and Tours

not being taken into account. In addition to this, it is quite the habit of well-to-do families in France to send their sons and daughters to England for the benefit of the language. No report indicates, however, that any are ever sent to the United States for that purpose, although some are sent here to study industrial and economic conditions.

ELSEWHERE ON THE CONTINENT.

English is taught in the institutions of higher learning in Switzerland. This is supplemented by organizations such, for instance, as the English Club, of seventy-five members, at St. Gall, and an even larger one at Berne, which city, the consul writes, was not long ago "English-crazy." There are similar organizations at Lucerne, Basle, and Zurich.

There is hardly more than incidental recognition of English in the twenty-one universities of Italy, while English philology is taught only in the technical schools, such, for instance, as those at Milan, Florence, and Venice, which are not university seats. At Florence, the *Circolo Filologico*, and at Rome, Naples, and Genoa, similar organizations devote attention to English.

In Germany, the language is represented in the curricula of all the *realgymnasias* and of the universities. There is an Anglo-American club at Chemnitz, and one at Soligen, while there is an English club at each of the cities of Hanover, Frankfurt, Prague, and Dresden. There are students' clubs, made up of English and American students, at Berlin and Vienna.

On the remainder of the Continent, with the exception of Denmark,—from which, unfortunately, no reports were received,—conditions, while encouraging, are far from satisfactory. Thus, while a certain amount of English is compulsory in all colleges and many secondary schools in Norway and Sweden, and while there are large private classes at both Christiania and Stockholm, in each of which there exists an English society, in practically all the other cities of both countries but little attention is given to the subject.

Holland furnishes certain opportunities for the study of English, which, among cultivated people, is very popular at Amsterdam, Rotterdam, The Hague, and Leyden. Each winter, a course of English lectures is delivered at Rotterdam, and also at The Hague. The course last year embraced, among others, lectures by the lamented Max O'Rell, in which he gave interesting reminiscences of America, and one by Mr. W. J. Dawson on "Abraham Lincoln." Some attention is given to English at Antwerp and at Brussels, at both of which cities it has

extensive commercial importance, while at Ghent *les écoles du soir* teach English to full classes at two cents per lesson to each pupil.

ENGLISH-SPEAKING NATIVE POPULATIONS ON THE CONTINENT.

The number of English-speaking natives varies. Thus, at both Lisbon and Oporto, a good many speak English, due very largely to the intimate political and commercial relations which have long existed between England and Portugal. In France, consular estimates place the English-speaking native population at 1,000 each at Dieppe and Boulogne-sur-mer, 1,500 at Dunkirk, 500 at Rouen, 200 at Nantes, and 300 at Algiers, with a very large but undeterminable number at Paris, Marseilles, Havre, Lyons, St. Étienne, and at other points. Antwerp, Liège, and Brussels, respectively, possess large numbers of English-speaking natives, while, among the Belgian cities, Ghent has the fewest. In certain German cities, leaving out of consideration Berlin, Hamburg, and Bremen, in which practically everybody conspicuously engaged in political, professional, or commercial life speaks, at least, some English, we are almost surprised that at Königsberg there are two thousand and at Stettin nearly as many English-speaking natives. At Dresden, outside of the large Anglo-American colony, much English is spoken. Hanover, Frankfurt, Danzig, and Breslau, together with Trieste, each have from four hundred to a thousand natives who are more or less familiar with our tongue. From Prague, Consul Watts writes: "Among the better class a large number speak English, it being the most fashionable foreign language here. It is more studied and spoken than French or any other foreign language." Almost equally satisfactory reports come from Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and The Hague; also, from Stockholm and Christiania. The situation is almost equally as encouraging at St. Petersburg and Moscow, as might be inferred from the linguistic aptitude of the Russian. Yet while this sounds very encouraging, it must be remembered that there are hundreds of smaller yet important cities in which the sentiment toward the English language varies from apathy to antagonism, and that among the great masses of people, urban and rural, there is absolutely no interest in the subject.

THE STATUS OF AMERICAN LITERATURE IN CONTINENTAL EUROPE.

The American, however, who felicitates himself that, even in the cities mentioned, the interest in the English language engenders interest in the literature of America is doomed to disap-

pointment ; for whatever interest is thus aroused centers in the literature of England ; to which country, rather than to America, all literature in the English language is most frequently attributed. This is distinctly manifested in the report from Frankfort, where "the English authors and the English periodicals are in favor with the Germans, who consider the United States vernacular as being inferior English." Another report, from a smaller German city, reads : "Most people in this city, as far as I can judge, make no difference between the literature of the two countries, as, generally, they do not know which is which." From Antwerp comes the message that "American literature is read to some extent by the educated classes, but it is little known as compared with English literature, which is popular and spreading rapidly throughout the district, especially among wealthy and business men." In Hungary, "translations of individual works by Cooper, Mark Twain, Bret Harte, Longfellow, Poe, Stockton, Hawthorne, Howells, Bellamy, Mrs. Stowe, and others have appeared, although these authors are generally recognized and spoken of as English rather than American."

Consul-General Gowdy reports that, at Paris, "American books are hardly read except by American residents." At Nantes, American literature is virtually unknown, "most Frenchmen thinking of Longfellow and Washington Irving as Englishmen." From another city comes the report that "Mark Twain is looked upon as an Englishman." (When it comes to this, it is about time for Americans to fight !) There is but little surprise that American literature should be all but unknown in Spain, when, from one of the most prominent consular districts comes the information that "it is safe to assert that only a limited number even of cultivated Spaniards know Shakespeare's *chefs-d'œuvre* otherwise than by hearsay." An American book or magazine is a rarity at Lisbon and Oporto, although English publications are much sought after. Italy, outside of Rome and Florence, is indifferent equally to English and to American literature, while, in those two cities, it is patronized almost exclusively by the large Anglo-American colony. In Switzerland, "there is but little discrimination between the literatures of England and America, and but little interest in that of either."

Unpleasing as is this condition, there are, at least, a few evidences of a hopeful beginning. Thus, Holland manifests an interest almost equally in English and American books and magazines, while in both Rotterdam and Amsterdam there seems to be a distinct demand for Ameri-

can works on economic questions. In Norway, "the literature of America is becoming gradually better known, and some works are very well received." American magazines are sold in the bookstores at Christiania. In Sweden, or at least in Stockholm, American literature commands attention "more especially as it relates to specialties. American humorists are much appreciated. Mark Twain is much admired. Longfellow is looked upon as America's most representative poet. American newspapers are looked upon as marvels of enterprise and endeavor." In Austria, the glassmakers at Haida have taken a keen interest in the works of Bellamy and George, which, however, are read in translations. At Prague, "American literature seems to be equally well known with that of England, and Mark Twain seems to have been read by almost every one and is as well known as in America." The works of Mark Twain, "America's most widely known author and citizen," together with those of Cooper, Bret Harte, and Marion Crawford, are translated and extensively read at Breslau. The cheap Tauchnitz editions are, however, the usual form of publication. Mark Twain and Bret Harte, of American writers, are best known in France, although Gertrude Atherton comes in for mention from Boulogne-sur-mer. There is a cordial sentiment toward American publications at La Rochelle, while American fashion journals are well known at St. Étienne.

This brief survey of the situation not only creates the impression, but forces the conclusion, so far as continental Europe is concerned, first, that, with few exceptions, notably Spain and Italy, there is a certain interest in literature printed in the English language ; secondly, that the literature of England is so distinctly dominant in many cities and districts that all literature in the English language is assumed to emanate from that country ; thirdly, that, with the exception of a few authors, the literature of America, as contradistinguished from that of England, does not command attention in the majority of the cities and countries ; and, fourthly, that in the few localities in which American literature has gained a footing, it seems to be received as favorably as does that of the mother country.

AN EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMME.

It has been shown that there has heretofore been a failure on the part of America to secure just recognition of its real position on the cultural side of civilization. The remedy is suggested by the conditions to be overcome ; active steps should be taken through every available

means modestly to bring the truth to the attention of people in whose eyes we wish to stand well, and between whom and America there exist not only relations of international comity, but, in many instances, ties of consanguinity. This suggestion may be translated into a formula of action somewhat as follows :

1. The universities should be induced either to establish courses in English, or where such courses are established, to include specific recognition of American themes, not only by their own professors, but by the delivery of lectures in English on American topics by American lecturers sent from America for the purpose. Washington should take the initiative or, at least, lend its kind offices in securing the consent and co-operation of the various ministers of public instruction.

2. Americans, residing in various European cities in considerable numbers, ought to be visited and, when practicable or expedient, should be organized into groups with reference to giving popular support to the movement, not only in the universities, but among the people. Their influence could be invoked also in inaugurating schools for instruction in English for the adult population. In this connection, it is to be remembered that wherever there is a group of Americans there is invariably a larger group of English, and that between the two there exists a constant *entente cordiale* naturally to be predicated upon common blood, common impulses, and a common civilization. These two elements, coöperating with each other and with the English-speaking members of the native population, ought to yield an encouraging audience for American lecturers.

3. The further progress of the movement might then be effected either through governmental channels or, if that be found unavailable, through the instrumentality of a voluntary organization. In either event, however, lecturers to be sent out in this cause ought to be selected from among our most representative men by an advisory council, consisting of such publicists as, among our university presidents, Eliot, Hadley, Butler, Schurman, Harper, Wilson, and Jordan, —men whose life business it is to judge of the qualifications of men.

A FRENCH PRECEDENT.

A course of action, similar to that outlined above, has been followed with signal success by France,—a precedent which is, in reality, responsible for the present general review of the question. The French minister of the interior, under date of January 24, 1884, designated the Alliance Française as an *établissement d'utilité pub*

lique, in which capacity it was subsequently recognized by formal decree of the President of the French republic. It has for its object, first, to promulgate a knowledge and love of the national language in all the French colonies and protectorates, and "*de faciliter avec eux les relations et les rapports commerciaux*;" secondly, to enter into relations (a) with the groups of French people residing in foreign countries, (b) with the friends of the language and literature of France wherever residing, and (c) to second, "whether in the Levant or the countries yet barbarous," the French missionaries of various cults. The method of action contemplates the establishment of schools of French for adults, the subvention of schools already existing, the introduction of French into schools where it is not already taught, the stimulation of the zeal of students and promoters by prizes and honors, the distribution of French books among the school libraries of foreign countries, and the development of teachers of French by establishing instruction, and arranging lectures and summer courses of instruction for foreigners in France.

This organization has extended its operations into every country of the world. A casual copy of the *Bulletin*, the official publication of the Alliance Française, published at Paris, contains reports from England, Holland, Germany, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Russia, Italy, Spain, Greece, Turkey, Persia, China, Japan, Australia, Canada, the United States, Cuba, the Antilles, Venezuela, Brazil, the Argentine, and Chile. It has 30,000 members scattered throughout the world, an annual budget of 300,000 francs (\$60,000), distributes money or books to over 300 schools, has established 115 *comités de propagande* in France and 126 *comités d'action* in foreign countries, and it enjoys the coöperation of 224 regularly elected delegates. The Alliance Française, in its operations in the United States, is primarily and essentially a university movement. It began, I believe, with the Cercle Français at Harvard and gradually embraced Yale, Columbia, Princeton, and Cornell. A few years ago, Mr. James H. Hyde, of New York, took hold of the movement, giving it money and a definite organization, with the result that to-day every university of note in the United States is a willing, active, and delighted promoter. In practically every city there is a group of French people, with numerous French-speaking Americans, duly organized and working in coöperation with the universities to propagate in America a knowledge of everything that relates to the French language and French civilization. Since Mr. Hyde assumed charge of the movement, which he last year relinquished

to President Harper, of the University of Chicago, the various groups having been gathered together under the title of the *Fédération de l'Alliance Française aux Etats Unis*, lecturers and subjects have been presented under its auspices as follows: M. René Doumié, "The History of the Romantic School in France;" M. Edouard Rod, "Dramatic Poetry in France;" M. Henri de Regnier, "Contemporaneous French Poetry;" M. Gaston Deschamps, "French Literature in the Nineteenth Century;" M. Hughes Le Roux, "The French Novel and French Society;" M. Germain Martin, "French History, Arts, and Sciences in France;" M. Leopold Mabillean, "Fundamental Ideas in French Politics Since 1870" and "Social Ideas in Contemporaneous France;" and, incidentally, but much to our gratification, we have had, under the same auspices, M. Jules Huret, of *Le Figaro*, who lectured on "Coöperative Industries in France" while studying the same subject from the American view-point. This year, the lectures were delivered by M. André Michel, the celebrated art critic of the *Louvre*.

AN ENGLISH MOVEMENT.

The necessity for a counter movement has been recognized in England, and has resulted in the organization in that country of the Anglo-American League, with the avowed purpose of promoting in every way the common interests of Anglo-American civilization. This purpose is distinctly a laudable one, although advices are wanting that actual work has been commenced. In any event, the sentiment underlying the London organization must appeal cordially to Americans, every one of whom may be relied upon to further its interests whenever opportunity may offer. The facts presented, however, indicate that America needs to do something on its own initiative for the promotion of its own individuality and its own interests. When, by such means, it has advanced its own status somewhat commensurately with that of England, it may engage in the labors of the Anglo-American League, less as a beneficiary and more as a coadjutor. In the meantime, in carrying out a distinctly American movement, numerous incidental opportunities must necessarily offer to reciprocate with probably increased effectiveness the labors of our English *confrères* in promoting the common welfare of English-speaking people.

THE POLITICAL AND COMMERCIAL ASPECTS OF THE QUESTION.

That a movement originating in the United States, and projected along the lines of the French

Alliance, would result in the better understanding of America by foreign countries is apparent; and that political relations, based, as they ought always to be, upon complete understanding, would be greatly facilitated thereby, follows as a logical conclusion.

That commercial relations would be promoted in the same manner and to the same degree seems to be equally apparent. Relative to this point, the United States consuls were asked, "To what extent and in what manner would the extension of the English language among the native population promote American commerce in your consular districts?" The replies were, for the most part, affirmative, although a few consuls seemed to think that the resulting commercial advantage would accrue to the foreigners rather than to the Americans. They are, however, fairly represented by the following examples:

Consul Man, writing from Breslau, says: "The extension of the English language would undoubtedly be a powerful factor in promoting American trade here, as it would enable those who become interested in American goods to correspond and trade directly with dealers in the United States, and would also make the advertisements in the various publications that are found in the cafés and clubs generally comprehended, and to make more effective the circulars, price lists, etc., distributed by dealers according to lists furnished by consulates." Consul Watts, writing from Prague, where "English is the most fashionable foreign language" among the natives, says: "The knowledge of English facilitates and encourages American commerce, which has steadily increased in this consular district within the last ten years." Consular Agent von Gehren, at Zacatecas, after emphasizing the value of English to merchants, adds: "Private persons, also, who speak English, are inclined to order direct from the large department stores in the United States." Consul Magill, at Tampico, says: "The point of this is seen in the fact that Canada alone consumes more American goods than all Latin-America. Contiguity has much to do with this, of course, but a common language has more."

In this same connection, there is a significance in the fact that the *Bulletin* of the *Alliance Française*, already alluded to, carries as standing matter the motto, "*Tout client de la langue Française devient un client des produits Française*;" or, in plain English, "Every one who speaks the French language becomes the consumer of French products." The further declaration is made that it is expected, by means of the movement, "*de faciliter les exportations du commerce Français*," the word "export" being italicized,

while the word "import" is entirely omitted. When this phase of the organization is taken into account, and when it is remembered that practically all French consuls are commercial agents, by which is meant selling agents, the significance of the movement becomes apparent. Through these French commercial agencies, scattered all over the world, orders can be placed by consumers for articles of French production, and thus, especially in American families that have become familiar with the French language, it becomes as easy to order from Paris, Bordeaux, Marseilles, or Lyons as from the department stores of New York, Philadelphia, Chicago, or Cincinnati. The increased time involved is compensated for by the cheapness of the articles, which are exempt from profits imposed consecutively by the importer, the jobber, and the retailer.

It is by no means certain that such a supplementary commercial policy would be wise on the part of the United States, nor need it be a necessary feature of the propaganda that is here proposed, but it is mentioned in this connection to indicate that the French Alliance, viewed in all its aspects, is distinctly an aggressive movement. It is, however, an example of beneficent aggression that yields a *quid pro quo* in culture and civilization for all that it gains in pecuniary profits. This very beneficent aspect of the French movement, however, cannot but inspire Americans with the spirit of emulation, while it furnishes to the United States an opportunity to exercise, as a matter of duty, its well-established policy of reciprocity.

THE REAL BASIS.

The real motive, the real basis, for the American movement, if this discussion shall eventuate in a movement, is to be found, however, not so much in the political and commercial aspects of the question as in the pride of Americans, not only in the civilization to which they have attained, but in the civilization to which they aspire. We have been conducting and are yet engaged in a gigantic political movement, and we owe it to the world to tell candidly of our successes and our failures; we are to-day involved in the most prodigious ethnic experiments in history, and we owe it to ourselves to advise the world of our successive experiences in the assimilation and amalgamation of peoples; we are laboring toward the solution of economic problems so gigantic as to challenge the imagination, and we have a duty to perform in laying the results before the world; we are developing new lines of education, the very spirit of which, broad and catholic as it is, prompts us to tell of our methods and results; we are evolving a new literature, representative of our politics, our economics, our education, our social complex, our ideals and our aspirations, and we owe it to ourselves to let it be understood as our literature; we are elaborating a new art, one representative in some measure, not only of our indigenous national characteristics, but of our cosmopolitan life; and, finally, we are building up a new civilization, and it is our duty to carry it back to the world whence we derived its elements.

MAGNITUDE OF AMERICAN BENEFACTIONS.

BY GEORGE J. HAGAR.

TOUCHING the oft-repeated inquiry as to whether the world is growing better or worse, it is inspiring to consider a series of facts that prove a stalwart unselfishness, a willingness of favored ones to promote the welfare of the less favored, and particularly a growing tendency on the part of men and women of large means to personally administer a fair share of their estates to aid the educational, religious, and philanthropic activities of the country.

A single line of action which I have had occasion to study closely for several years has developed results that are marvelous in their extent and most suggestive in their effects. In 1893, I was curious to ascertain approximately how much money, or material representing

money, was given and bequeathed by citizens of the United States for religious, charitable, and educational purposes in a single year. After collecting a vast amount of figures, I sifted them so as to exclude all gifts and bequests of less than five thousand dollars in money or material; all national, state, and municipal appropriations; and all ordinary contributions to regular church organizations and missionary societies. The residuum represented the purely individual benefactions.

The result of the first year's quest was such a grand tribute to the humanity of American men and women that the collecting has been kept up to the present day. If there were no other evidence to show that the part of the

world which occupies the United States is growing better, these annual totals and their great aggregate would be a sufficient demonstration.

Now for a few figures. The following table shows in round numbers the amounts of the gifts and bequests that were either made or became legally available in the years mentioned, under the restricted selection already noted :

1893.....	over	\$29,000,000
1894.....	"	32,000,000
1895.....	"	32,800,000
1896.....	"	27,000,000
1897.....	"	45,000,000
1898.....	"	38,000,000
1899.....	"	62,750,000
1900.....	"	47,500,000
1901.....	"	107,360,000
1902.....	"	94,000,000
1903.....	"	95,000,000
Total.....		\$610,410,000

If the omitted items could be gathered accurately, it would be quite reasonable to assume that this aggregate for eleven years would be swelled by at least \$250,000,000 ; but the known amounts, while doubtless far short of the real total, are monumental.

The above figures are also a reflex of the general financial condition of the country in the period covered by them. In 1896, when nearly every business interest was depressed, the total was the lowest in the record ; in 1898, during the war with Spain, when gifts went to more immediate and patriotic purposes, there was another drop ; and in 1901, high-water mark was reached, chiefly by the gifts of one person, Andrew Carnegie, which aggregated more than \$31,000,000, leaving, however, more than \$75,000,000 to the credit of other benefactors.

Where does the money come from ? In far less than a majority of individual cases, not from people considered rich in the present meaning of that word, although the acknowledged wealthy contribute the bulk of the total. In 1903, for instance, nineteen persons gave or bequeathed more than \$65,660,000. Gifts and bequests ranging from \$5,000 to \$25,000 aggregated nearly \$2,000,000, and those from \$25,000 upward reached the great sum of more than \$87,000,000. In two or three years there were few large benefactions, the totals being made up of an unusually large number of small sums. In the eleven years noted, there was an annual average of four hundred contributors to the totals.

Where does the money go ? Andrew Carnegie makes a specialty of public libraries in his gifts, with a good sprinkling of checks among educational institutions of established reputation. Dr. Daniel K. Pearsons has a fondness for small colleges in the West and the Southwest. John D. Rockefeller takes splendid care

of the University of Chicago, and has several millions annually to pass around among Baptist institutions and other interests that appeal to his consideration. The Vanderbilts, besides their countless smaller benefactions, have given many millions, chiefly in new buildings, to Yale University. Mrs. Jane Stanford, piously carrying out the plans of her late husband, has made Leland Stanford Jr. University the most richly endowed educational institution in the world. Mrs. Phoebe A. Hearst has chosen the University of California as the recipient of her largest bounty. Helen M. Gould gives liberally wherever her money will help people to help themselves, with a strong leaning toward Young Men's Christian Associations.

It is quite safe to assert that the majority of gifts and bequests goes to colleges and universities, with homes and hospitals for men, women, and children next, and memorial buildings and church edifices following. Within a few years, there have been noticeably large gifts and bequests for the establishment and maintenance of institutions for purely technical instruction.

Giving has become a business. When Mr. Carnegie offers \$75,000 to a city for a public library, it is conditional on the city raising one-tenth of that amount annually for the support of the library ; when Dr. Pearsons offers a college \$50,000, it is conditional on the college raising \$150,000 more within a specified time ; and so, too, with many of Mr. Rockefeller's proposed donations.

Many of the best-known givers have been obliged to surround themselves with barriers against professional solicitors. For many years, the Rev. Dr. Greer, now bishop-coadjutor of New York, has been the private almoner of the Vanderbilt families, and has had a large fund to distribute each year among such people and institutions as he deemed especially deserving. The private secretary of one man, the cashier of another, the confidential agent of a third, receives and investigates the applications for aid addressed to his principal.

It is an impossibility nowadays for one to obtain a soliciting interview with a conspicuous philanthropist without the latter having become satisfied with the worthiness of the object. Even then personal interviews are rare. Mr. Carnegie will write : " I have directed my cashier to send you," etc. Indeed, the personal annoyances of giving large amounts have become so intolerable that it is now quite the fashion to have a gift of several hundred thousand dollars to a college for a new dormitory announced as a gift " from a friend who does not wish to have his name made public."

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE WAR BETWEEN JAPAN AND RUSSIA.

NEARLY all of the English reviews for March have articles on the situation in the far East; some of them, indeed, find room for little else. There are five papers in the *Fortnightly* which bear more or less directly on the general theme, and of these the most brilliantly illuminative is the contribution of "Calchas."

"Once again," he says, "as in the days of the Crusades and the Ottoman advance, an Asiatic people shows its ability to fight on level terms with the white peoples. The difference is that the action of Japan, as all the recent diplomatic statements on both sides have proved, is defensive in essence. She wages a national struggle for national existence. She strikes for her place in the sun. She struggles to prevent the closing of the future against her. She fights for full freedom to develop in her own part of the world. Her struggle is in every sense heroic,—no less inspiring, perhaps, no less significant, than that of Greece against Persia. It cannot now be altogether unsuccessful. It may easily be triumphant to an extent that no detached observer before the outbreak of the war thought possible. The immediate probability, at least, is that the fall of Port Arthur is about to become the most startling episode in the relations of East and West since the fall of Constantinople."

"No white power in the world could have conducted Japan's diplomacy as consummately as she has been able to manage it for herself. No assistance from any white nation could have improved, up to the present moment, upon her fighting arrangements. The new great power is a real great power. If an unexpected ability on the part of the Japanese and Chinese to defend themselves against the white peril means a yellow peril, that is probably about to appear. It is enough to recognize that the East, for the first time since the Middle Ages, has once again secured equality of weapons and equality in the use of weapons."

RUSSIA'S HANDICAPS.

"Russia has made more serious mistakes than ours were at the beginning of the Boer war, and has made them in the face of a far more competent and powerful enemy. For the next few months she will fight against sea power, not with it, and against superior military force, not, as in our case, against a hopelessly outnumbered

foe, deriving all his strength from a temporary advantage of position."

As to Russia's ability to make a supreme national effort to retrieve her defeats, "Calchas" says:

"Autocracy, prolonged into the twentieth century, has become a corroding influence. It is rotting its own foundations, and nothing seems plainer than that the Russia of to-day is a far more inert and ineffective organism than the Russia of 1877. It is not impelled by anything like the same energy; it is not inspired by the same faith; it is not buoyed up by the same unquestioning hope."

Which seems to answer, in part, at least, the following question:

"In no circumstances can Russia hope, within any future near enough to concern the present generation, to sweep the Japanese from the mainland. Korea is gone, as the sea is gone. Both these, in all probability, are permanently lost. Southern Manchuria, with the Liao-tung Peninsula, will evidently be the next to go. Whether these, also, will be permanently or only temporarily forfeited is the life-and-death issue for Russia in the far East. In other words, if the Czarism does not possess the power to defeat its adversary utterly, does it possess the power, by a bloody and obstinate resistance, to force Japan to a compromise?"

WHAT IS LIKELY TO HAPPEN.

"Calchas" outlines the probable course of events as follows:

"Russia will not recognize defeat, she will make no formal surrender of her ground, and she will retire upon Harbin only in order to prolong the war, and to renew the struggle with immensely improved preparations. But the moment of her retreat will be the moment chosen for Germany's interference upon some plausible pretext relating to the integrity of China and the peace of the world. France, on her side, is just as eager to support Russia by diplomacy as she would be reluctant to assist her ally by arms, even if the British naval position did not make effective resistance impossible. Unless there were a complete preliminary understanding between Paris, Berlin, and St. Petersburg, any attempt at diplomatic interference would be hopeless. On the other hand, unless the republic supported the attempt to recover for Russia, by a diplomatic coalition, something of what she

had lost in the field, there would be an end, for all serious purposes, of the dual alliance. Germany would supplant the republic in the good graces of the Czar, and while possessing an ascendancy over Russia she has never had before, would become invulnerable by France. The latter would again lose much of the singular authority in Europe she has possessed during recent years. Above all, the final defeat of Russia would mean the bankruptcy of Russia, and the bankruptcy of Russia would send over France a wave of madness. It is clear that the first attempt at diplomatic intervention is likely to be made by France and Germany in concert, acting upon a common understanding with St. Petersburg as to the proposals to be put forward as a basis for peace."

WHAT JAPAN WILL DEMAND.

The writer foresees a new Congress of Berlin, this time held at Washington or Paris, for the rearrangement of the map in the far East. At this congress, the following would be, in his opinion, the minimum of the propositions that would be made by the Mikado's government as the result of success in the war would involve:

- "1. A free hand in Korea.
- "2. The transfer of Port Arthur to Japan.
- "3. A purely commercial use by Russia of the Manchuria railways, with the right to police the track, and with a neutral terminus at Talienwan.
- "4. The equivalent right of Japan to extend the Korean railways across southern Manchuria to Talienwan and Newchwang, and to garrison the line as Russia garrisons her line."

He appeals to Great Britain to discover what Japan's desires are in this war.

"It is vital that England and Japan should arrive at a complete understanding with each other as to the concrete objects which our ally looks to achieve in Manchuria, and that they should know the extent to which they may expect to rely upon American diplomatic support."

Who Was Responsible for the War?

Dr. E. J. Dillon, who contributes to this number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* an article on Russia's strong men, writing in the *Contemporary* for March, exonerates everybody save Admiral Alexieff, who, he says, could not bring himself to believe that Japan would ever fight, and who therefore only attempted to make as few concessions as possible. Of the viceroy's capability to conduct negotiations with Japan, Dr. Dillon does not seem to hold a high opinion. "One might as well," he says, "set a blacksmith who is honest and industrious to repair a lady's

watch." The admiral adopted the Eastern method of bargaining, and asked for more than he considered vital, so that he could sacrifice some points if necessary.

"The Japanese, on the other hand, made certain proposals at the outset which they plainly and emphatically stated represented the least that they could ask for or accept, having regard to the vital interests of their empire. And they meant what they said. Their system of doing business was that of asking a fixed price and refusing to haggle. Therefore, they were not in a position to knock off anything. Consequently, the game of diplomacy played between the Russian viceroy and the Japanese Government consisted in the presentation by Admiral Alexieff of counter-proposals, the return by Baron Komura of Japan's original demands with not a jot abated, the presentation by the Czar's representative of a set of suggestions less exorbitant, and the reiteration by the Japs of the terms which they had submitted at the beginning,—a game of diplomatic shuttlecock."

Dr. Dillon praises the Japanese for their patience and the trouble which they took to secure peace; but "the main object of the negotiations was to come to an agreement respecting Manchuria, yet after five months' parleying the Viceroy of the far East struck that essential question out!

THE CZAR'S LOVE OF PEACE.

"The great central fact, then, which, owing to the confidence reposed in Admiral Alexieff, remained hidden from all Russia was Japan's determination to obtain the settlement of the minimum of her claims by force if not by diplomacy. Had that resolve been understood and realized at any period of the negotiations, it is not merely probable, but practically certain, that the Czar would have fulfilled the promise to respect China's integrity,—a promise which has not yet been formally canceled,—rather than plunge two peace-loving peoples into a sanguinary war. For what it really comes to, if we accept the deliberate and repeated assurances made by the Czar's representatives, is this: He ardently desired peace; he was honestly resolved to uphold the integrity of China against all covetous nations, in the name of justice and morality. And when it was pointed out to him that it was quite as incompatible with justice and morality, and, indeed, with the inviolability of China, for Russia to annex Manchuria as for Germany to seize Kiao-Chau, and that no nation can efficaciously preach peace which despoils its neighbors wantonly and systematically, his majesty empowered his ambassadors to undertake that Manchuria

would be evacuated. Even a date was fixed for the evacuation, and Russia's friends throughout the world, myself among the rest, admired her moderation and her love of peace. The ministers, too, who made that promise were sincere."

But why should Alexieff, who was no diplomatist and unaccustomed to international usages, be bound by these promises? And so there is war.

"Admiral Alexieff's name," says Dr. Dillon, "will be coupled by the historian with one of the most disastrous blunders of modern times."

ADMIRAL ALEXIEFF'S PLAN.

Dr. Dillon outlines a scheme which he attributes to the Russian viceroy.

"Briefly put, it was to concentrate on the Korean frontier and in Manchuria such an overwhelming land force as would render all armed resistance on the part of Japan tantamount to national suicide. At the same time, the expense involved in this displacement of vast bodies of troops would have created a new and, indeed, unanswerable title to the permanent annexation of Manchuria, as well as to a commanding voice in the affairs of Korea. Then Japan, England, the United States, and China might indulge in paper protests to their hearts' content, but Russia would remain as the *beata possidens*, and no power would run the risk of an attempt to drive her out by force. The navies of all those states might then, if they chose, unite in the Yellow Sea and the Sea of Japan. They might annihilate Russia's squadron, but against three-quarters of a million soldiers they could effect absolutely nothing. The Manchurian, Korean, and, indeed, the far-Eastern question in all its manifold aspects, would have received a permanent, a peaceful, and a Russian solution. It was, in truth, a clever project, as is that of a chess-player who sees his way clearly to checkmate his adversary in seven moves, but fails to note that he himself will be checkmated in the fifth."

Dr. Dillon deals with the upshot of the war, in which he cannot see any chance of Russia gaining anything; neither would she lose anything that she has ever formally laid claim to. He touches upon the danger of the shaking of Russian financial credit and the possible results. He concludes as follows:

"All sincere lovers of peace must deeply regret that during one of the most critical periods of her history Russia's interests were not served by a great statesman like Witte, a clever soldier like Kuropatkin, or even a modest diplomatist like Count Lamsdorff, any one of whom could and would have steered the ship of state clear of the dangers of war."

The Japanization of China.

The *Young Man* for March contains an interesting interview with Mr. George Lynch, the war correspondent, who is made to say:

"I believe that the ideal of Japan, shadowy and indistinct at present, perhaps, is to put herself at the head of an awakened and modernized China and form a great Asiatic confederacy which shall be paramount in that continent. What will be the effect on the rest of the world if her policy succeeds, and all these hundreds of millions of the yellow race bring themselves into line with the most advanced modern civilization, can only be surmised; they might dominate the world."

"What signs of the Japanization of China did you specially notice?"

"During the last three years, the number of Chinamen going to be educated in Japanese colleges has increased in a remarkable manner; and great numbers of these, men of high birth, are pursuing their studies in the military academies, although there has always been a deep-rooted idea in China that the profession of arms was unworthy a gentleman. Then, a great volume of trade is growing up between the two countries, and a Japanese-Chinese bank is being projected. Japanese goods are now found everywhere in China, especially cottons, which in many cases are supplanting British goods, beer, spirits, cigarettes, etc.

"In the army, German, English, and French instructors have been replaced by Japanese, who have in hand the task of reorganization."

WHY JAPAN RESISTS RUSSIA.

JAPAN'S case in the present conflict with Russia has been clearly presented by the authorities at Tokio. In order to controvert any popular impression that Japan has entered on the war from motives of ambition or aggrandizement, Minister Takahira writes from Washington, for the March number of the *North American Review*, a recapitulation of the facts leading up to the outbreak of hostilities.

Mr. Takahira's chief contention is that the threatened absorption of Korea by a foreign power was a matter of vastly more importance to Japan than commercial interests in Manchuria, or any other of the points at issue.

"To Japan, everything affecting Korean affairs is of the gravest consequence. Occupancy by a foreign power would mean, at the very least, the restriction of the commerce and of the peaceful activities of her people in the most promising field for their development on the continent of Asia. If the occupying power were Russia, it

would mean far more ; because it would certainly entail measures of self-protection which could not but become a serious drain upon the national resources. I am speaking now, of course, of the political control of Korea by another power. So far as commercial and other legitimate enterprises are concerned, Japan has never had the slightest desire either to prevent their introduction or to hamper their growth. On the contrary, if she had a deciding voice in the matter, such influences would be welcomed and fostered, as they contribute to the development of an independent, enlightened, and prosperous nation ; and that is precisely what Japan wishes Korea to be. Near neighborhood and the distribution of power in Asia make the welfare of the peninsular empire a matter of such vital concern to Japan that, from motives of policy, if for no other reason, she must favor anything which raises Korea in the scale of civilization and tends to prevent the recurrence of those chaotic conditions which endanger Korean and Japanese interests alike."

KOREA'S INDEPENDENCE REQUIRED.

After alluding to the fact that the original treaty which introduced Korea into the family of nations was made with Japan, Mr. Takahira characterizes the relations of the two countries since that time as "on the whole, amicable and mutually beneficial." The war with China ten years ago was the direct result of Japan's desire to maintain Korea's independence. Japan's relations with Korea, according to Mr. Takahira, furnish the keynote of the present situation.

"It is true that Japan has commercial interests in Manchuria, to the profitable development of which, under normal conditions, she had every reason to look forward with confident expectation. It is true, also, that under the policy inaugurated by Russia since her occupation of Manchuria, this commerce has been threatened, if not with extinction, certainly with serious restriction. But considerations of this nature, and the injustices they entail, grave though they undoubtedly are, could never be regarded as sufficient reason for a resort to war. Other nations have important commercial interests in Manchuria which are affected injuriously by Russia's action in the same manner as those of Japan. But to no nation, except to China and Korea, has the trend of Russian policy in the far East during the past few years been of such moment as to Japan. What was the ultimate object of that policy ? Viewing the steadily widening area of Russian encroachment, a definite answer to that question became imperatively necessary. If Russia's ambition was as voracious

as her actions, if not her words, indicated, there was no time to be lost in at least attempting to secure guarantees of safety."

THE JAPANESE PROGRAMME OF PAN-MONGOLIANISM.

WHATEVER may be the issue of the Russo-Japanese conflict, the evolution of the Pan-Mongolian idea will remain a question of the first importance to Europe. For that there is a really Pan-Mongolian idea, with a distinct programme and propaganda, can no longer be doubted. A very closely woven and thought-provoking article on the Japanese leadership in this Pan-Mongolian movement appears in *La Revue* (Paris), contributed by Alexandre Ular, a French explorer and Orientalist. This writer lays bare a scheme and a campaign for the "Japanization" of China which is amazing in its extent and the minuteness of its ramifications. The attempt to introduce Chinese labor in South Africa is but one of the advance skirmishes of the Mongolian march. The United States, M. Ular declares, is paying more attention than ever before to the "yellow peril." He has heard terrible stories of our treatment of the Celestial. Australia, the Dutch East Indies, Burma, Assam, French Indo-China, and Siberia are also confronted with a Chinese problem. "No philosophy can do away with the reality of this great struggle. No spiritual discussion can suffice, because this is not a theoretical notion,—it is a fact, this 'yellow peril.'"

THE "YELLOW PERIL" ORGANIZED.

But, he says, up to the present,—that is, "up to the time of the Boxer troubles and the attempted reform of China, the Celestial peril amounted to little more than that from convulsions of nature, such as cyclones and volcanic eruptions." When, however, the reform party and the Boxers had brought about more or less national consciousness, the "'yellow peril' was organized. From being the natural phenomenon, it became a political weapon. From a simple fact of observation, it became a doctrine. The 'yellow peril' organized will be Pan-Mongolianism.

"And what is most remarkable in this evolution is that . . . those who are attempting to organize this peril are precisely those who seem, because of their nearness, to have most cause for fear. Japan on one side, and Russia on the other, are working with all their might to develop, to organize, and particularly to hasten, Pan-Mongolianism. The gravitation of the Russian Empire toward the ocean, the gravitation

of Japan toward the continent,—two inevitable national destinies,—are meeting in this vast enterprise of racial organization. The Russian Pan-Mongolian party, under the able direction of Prince Oukhtomsky; that of the Japanese, organized under the administration of Prince Konoyé [recently deceased], are even now disputing for the privilege of organizing in the interest of their own future the inert and almost petrified energies of the Chinese."

The Russian Pan-Mongolian programme being very well known, this writer turns his attention to that of Japan, which, he declares, is proceeding along different lines. The latter is based on race similarity.

JAPAN'S PROGRAMME.

"The similarity of civilizations—from costumes even up to philosophies—permits the Japanese at once to mingle with the Chinese, and to use among them methods which Europe can never employ. . . . Japan is not in this matter judge and advocate at the same time, as are all the Occidentals. It is not their own civilization that the Japanese wish to impose upon the Celestials,—it is a civilization (quite external) with which they themselves have been impressed from Europe; and finding this impression good, they are attempting to bring to their brothers by race and national civilization the same impression for the common good of the racial family."

The system of espionage by which the government of the whole country is administered by a committee of public safety, "by a system of spying without parallel in the history of any other people," has been of great service to the Japanese in their campaign for influencing the Chinese. The Japanese, says M. Ular, are a people of spies. Their system of secret information is the best in the world. "The results of this system are that the Japanese gain, little by little, a remarkable address in being informed, and at the same time an astonishing patience in waiting for the very best moment to take advantage of their observations." This gives the Japanese a splendid equipment for his campaign in China. "They are making the Chinese accustomed to think like themselves."

The great difference between the impelling motives of the Japanese and those of the Europeans in China is that "Japan is not only seeking for industrial markets, as are the others. She gravitates toward the continent under the stress of necessity for national expansion compelled by overpopulation. She is not compelled to impose herself upon China, but to introduce herself; not to snatch from her a part of her

riches, but to share in them." After the war of 1894, Japan began to cease pressing the European veneer upon the Chinese, and began to hold up to them the vision of the old Mongol spirit which still survives. "In place of insisting upon modern methods which had ranged Japan on the side of China's mortal enemies, the Island Empire found it better to base the relations upon what there was in common between the two nations,—the identity of writing, the similarity of customs and physiognomy, the resemblance of popular superstitions, the unity of commercial spirit, which differed so much from its analogue in Europe, and especially the common danger of being brought completely or partially under the control of one or the other of the great powers. And with this scheme of colonization between the Mongols, the European civilization, of which Japan had already taken the best part, was adapted more than ever to the fundamental needs common to the two peoples."

FOUNDING OF THE TUNG-YA-T'UNG-WEN-HOU.

After the *coup d'état* of 1898, in China, the chiefs of the Chinese reform party and the leaders of the Japanese Pan-Mongolian idea met at Tokio, and the result of their deliberations, which this writer characterizes as "of astonishing wisdom," was the creation "of a great central organism, a sort of underground government, . . . working for Pan-Mongolianism, with powers almost unlimited. This inspiration of Pan-Mongolianism in Japan was the To-adoboun-kai, or, in Chinese, Tung-ya-t'ung-wen-houi, 'The Congregation of Civilization in the East.' This powerful organization, presided over by Prince Konoyé, brother of the Emperor of Japan, and President of the House of Peers, was subdivided, jointed, and provided with tools, with a scientific precision such as had no parallel in the West, with the exception of the Jesuit order."

The work of this organization, generally known as the Tung-wen houi, began, this writer says, with the consideration of economic questions. "To create commercial intimacy would perhaps be the best way to bring about Pan-Mongolian consciousness."

"In this campaign, part commercial and part political, the Japanese were infinitely more skillful than the English. They made no effort to bring about great commercial schemes. They did not try to force the Chinese to purchase heavy machinery, enormous quantities of arms, or other formidable methods of production. They did not throw into the Chinese market vast stocks of cotton, of petroleum, of agricultural or industrial tools. They avoided as they would the pest

any mention of opium. . . . They never offered the Chinese merchandise of which the latter had no knowledge. They awaited the results of the 'insinuations' of their myriad agents to ship any novelties, but these were always the novelties demanded by the Chinese. In brief, they did not look for the large channels, but for the small fissures of infiltration, and these fissures were found, not in the needs of trade on a great scale, but in the many necessities of daily life. The identity of the language greatly facilitates this infiltration."

HOW JAPAN IS GETTING THE TRADE.

The next step was for Japanese merchants to become members of Chinese trade and coöperative associations. These societies mean as much to the Chinese labor world as the Catholic congregations do for the power of the Church, with this difference, that everybody in China belongs. These organizations dominate the economic life of China, and the slow but persistent entrance of the Japanese into them is, says this writer, "the greatest danger in the direction of the economic Japanization of China."

Of the three indispensable reforms, only the first, that of the military, has been actually begun. The two others, the political and the social, are perhaps the rocks upon which the vast scheme will wreck itself. The writer goes on to point out the danger to the success of the scheme arising from the difficulty which has always been experienced in evading assimilation by the Chinese. The Japanese join in the Buddhist rites, and this further betters their influence. Then, "in every Chinaman who learns how to manage a cannon or to fire a gun, the Japanese see a future ally, a future comrade, a fellow-citizen of the great Yellow Empire, which will be established to oppose, in the face of the white world, the Asiatic Monroe Doctrine, which will at last be the fatal check to Europe."

INTELLECTUAL PROPAGANDA.

In matters of education and general literature, the intellectual invasion of the Japanese has been even more marked. In Tokio, there has been organized for the two nations a school of common civilization in which the doctrines of Pan-Mongolianism are taught. The Imperial University at Peking is to be reorganized by the Japanese, and the *Tung-wen-hou-pao*, the official organ of Pan-Mongolianism, has been established, with "violent anti-English, anti-Russian, and anti-German sentiments." In the common veneration for Confucius is found one of the strongest supports of the new movement, "for the veneration for Confucius is not, as Occidental mis-

sionaries would have us believe, necessarily an expression of religion or adoration, but it is always the symbol of the loyalty of patriotism. For this reason, there can be no concession upon this point without striking at the root of the racial character of the people."

Japan has spread her propaganda of Pan-Mongolianism in Manchuria, Mongolia, Thibet, and Turkestan, and, "in the very face of Russia in the north and France in the south, she has begun to agitate for a national freedom and an instruction, modern in spirit, but outside of and in opposition to that of Europe."

The Russian Pan-Mongolian campaign is, of course, radically opposed to the Japanese scheme, and there must be eternal conflict between the two; but Russia, "incapable of struggling in China with economic and intellectual arms, cannot look forward tranquilly to the result of the duel. Her method, purely political and military, cannot succeed in China. . . . The powerful reality of the Japanese and Chinese economic infiltration in Siberia is proving to the Russian autocracy that military victories may nevertheless be terrible defeats when obtained over an enemy of superior economic civilization."

Is Japan Overconfident?

In the editorial section of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* (Paris), M. Villetard de Laguéire declares that the Pan-Mongolianism of Japan is an assured fact. Japan must expand. Since 1895 and 1900, the Japanese, he says, "infatuated by their victories over China, convinced that it was they who took Peking and saved the legations in 1900, intoxicated by much flattery," have made up their minds to spread to the continent. But if Russia should finally get Korea, and hold the coast of the continent from Bering to Shanghai, "the dream of greatness will vanish from the eyes of Japan."

A Japanese View of China's Fate.

Chinese national integrity, declares Fukuchi Genichiro, in the *Taiyo* (*Sun Trade Journal*). The Tokio magazine which has the largest circulation of any monthly in the empire, is nothing but a clever paradox for the amusement of the politicians. In reality, the partition of China presents itself as an inevitable solution of the question. Men do not try to prop up a falling house with phrases or holy water, and China, sooner or later, will fall to pieces. In the interest of Japan, this cannot happen too soon.

The *Taiyo* is publishing a series of articles giving the opinions of prominent Japanese on the war. We quote from these on another page of this issue.

RUSSIA'S MANCHURIAN METROPOLIS.

THE building of the city of Harbin affords ample evidence of Russia's purpose to become a great factor in the industrial development of Manchuria. "The Moscow of Asia" the Russians call this new metropolis, and there is some justification for the title. Consul Henry B. Miller, writing on "Russian Development of Manchuria," in the *National Geographic Magazine* for March, describes the administrative and industrial features of this remarkable modern city at the very heart of old Manchuria.

Harbin is situated on the Sungari River, where the Chinese Eastern Railway branches off from the Siberian trunk line. It is about 350 miles west of Vladivostok and 600 miles north of Port Arthur. The city is the center of a rich agricultural, timber, and grazing country.

FOREIGNERS NOT DESIRED.

"It is as distinctly a Russian city as though it were located in the heart of Russia, and none but Russians and Chinese are permitted to own land, construct buildings, or engage in any permanent enterprise. The city has been created by the Russian Government, under the management of the Manchurian Railway Company. The

land for many miles in each direction has been secured, so as to make it impossible for any foreign influence to secure a profit or foothold close to the city, and foreigners are not recognized as having any rights whatever, but are permitted there by sufferance. The chief railway engineer is the administrator of the city, and, up to the present time, has had complete control of everything, but in the new scheme for the government of Manchuria some form of municipal organization will be permanently established.

RAPID URBAN GROWTH.

"In 1900, the place began to assume importance as a center of railway management; and in 1901, the population had grown to 12,000 Russians; in 1902, to 20,000; by May, 1903, to 44,000; and in October, 1903, a census showed a population of 60,000, exclusive of soldiers. Of these, 400 are Japanese and 300 of all other nationalities, including Germans, Austrians, Greeks, and Turks. All the rest are Russians. There are no Americans.

"The railway and administration employees, including families, constitute 11,000 of the population. The Chinese population is about 40,000, located in a special settlement. The ratio of

women to men is as follows : Japanese, 120 per cent. ; Russians, 44 per cent. ; Chinese, 1.8 per cent. ; average of women, 14.3 per cent."

A COMMERCIAL AND MANUFACTURING CITY.

As the center of the entire railway administration of Manchuria, Harbin would naturally become the center of industrial and commercial development for the whole of Manchuria, so far as Russia is concerned. It is the headquarters of the civil courts and an important military post. The Russians have already expended on the city for administrative purposes the sum of 30,000,000 rubles (\$15,450,000).

"Harbin was started primarily as a military center and an administration town for the government and direction of railway affairs. Its growth into a splendid commercial and manufacturing city was not originally provided for by the promoters, and it has been somewhat of a surprise to them, but the fever of making it a great Russian commercial and manufacturing city has now taken possession of the railway management, and every system of promotion and protection that can be devised to increase its growth along these lines is being energetically encouraged.

"The capital for most of the private enterprises is furnished by Siberian Jews. Chinese are furnishing money for the construction of some of the finest private buildings, such as hotels, storerooms, etc. In the administration part of the city, no private buildings of any kind are permitted.

INDUSTRIES OF HARBIN.

"The leading industry of Harbin is the manufacture of flour. Eight mills are now in operation, all with modern European machinery with one exception, and that is a small one constructed with American machinery. Applications have been made and granted for the construction of two more large ones, and by the middle of 1904, 10 mills will be in operation, producing 25,000 *poods* (902,800 pounds) of flour per day. They pay from 30 to 35 cents gold per bushel for their wheat delivered at the mills, and the wheat-producing area can be increased enormously. The present value of the flour mills in Harbin is 1,200,000 rubles (\$618,000).

"In the immediate vicinity of Harbin there are 200 brick-making plants, the cost of which was 500,000 rubles (\$257,500). Two of these plants were constructed by the administration, at a cost of 200,000 rubles (\$103,000). Most of the brick produced are used in the construction of the city. A very good grade of red brick is

produced and sold for 6.50 rubles (\$3.35) per 1,000. Most of the work is done by Chinese, who are paid 35 kopecks (18 cents) per day.

"The next industry of importance is the production of the Russian liquor, vodka. There are eight manufactories, constructed at a cost of 200,000 rubles (\$103,000)."

THE WAR AND RUSSIA'S FUTURE.

A SPECULATION on "The Slav and His Future" is contributed by Dr. Emil Reich to the *Fortnightly Review* for March. This article was written before the beginning of actual warfare.

EXPANSION OF RUSSIA.

Reviewing Russia's marvelous expansion, Dr. Reich remarks that immense territorial conglomerations and vast throngs of population have not usually gone far in the making of history. He maintains that Russia is incapable of seriously menacing the peace of Europe from a military point of view. There has been a tendency to exaggerate the grounds of hostility that exist between England and Russia. Dr. Reich practically justifies Russia in the present war by saying that, sooner or later, she must acquire an ice-free and open port on the ocean.

Russia's future, he predicts, "will be fully occupied with her colonial, industrial, social, and political development, and if we may judge from historic precedent, her social growth will of necessity precede her political development."

RUSSIAN SOLDIERS' ENDURANCE.

Dr. Reich, dealing with the military question, makes the following comparison between the loss-bearing endurance of Russia's soldiers and the Italians :

"At the battle of Zorndorf (1758), 45 per cent. of the Russian army was left upon the field, and the losses at Kunersdorf (1759) were equally heavy. Here are the percentages of Russian casualties in several other famous engagements : Austerlitz (1805), 15 per cent.; Eylau (1807), 28 per cent.; Friedland (1807), 24 per cent.; Borodino (1812), 31 per cent.; Warsaw (1831), 18 per cent.; Inkerman (1854), 24 per cent.; Plevna (I.) (1877), 28 per cent.; Plevna (II.), 28 per cent.; Plevna (III.), 17 per cent. Observe now the Italian lists, and the striking contrast which they show : St. Lucia (1848), 2 per cent.; Custoza (1848), 1.2 per cent.; Mortara (1849), 2.2 per cent.; Novara (1849), 5 per cent.; Solferino (1859), 8 per cent.; Custoza (1866), 4 per cent. He claims, however, that Russian

generalship has not hitherto so distinguished itself."

THE RENASCENCE OF POLAND.

Part of his article is devoted to Poland, which, he declares, is very much alive as a national unit.

"Poland will, perhaps, some day take up toward Germany the same position which Hungary has taken up toward Austria, and we may witness the formation of a Polono-German dualism, on the same lines as the present Austro-Hungarian dualism, in which the union is only maintained in external relations."

THE "COLLAPSE" OF RUSSIA.

"IGNOTUS," writing in the *National Review* for March, "can discover nothing in past naval history quite like the events of the first ten days of war between Russia and Japan." In his article "The Collapse of Russia in the Far East," he elaborates the unpreparedness of Russia for this war, giving details. Referring to Admiral Alexieff's disposition of the Russian fleet, he says:

"Alexieff placed four of his good ships (the *Gromovoi* and three other excellent cruisers) at Vladivostok, where they were more than one thousand miles from the rest of the fleet, at Port Arthur; he stationed the fine fast cruiser *Variag* and a poor little gunboat at Chemulpho; and the rest of his force he placed outside the harbor at Port Arthur. One gropes in vain for any sign of calculated plan or intelligence in these dispositions."

As to the Russian charge of treachery in the Japanese attack before a declaration of war, he reminds the Russians that if they had taken the trouble to consult their own history they would have discovered that "Russia has never waited to declare war." What has actually happened is—"the Russian navy as a serious force has ceased to exist. There still are Russian ships, built and building, but all confidence in the fleet is gone, and in the Russian personnel there must be just that demoralizing sense of inferiority to the Japanese that the French navy felt after the disaster of the Nile. Seven of the best battle-ships, two of the best armored cruisers, half-a-dozen of the finest protected cruisers in the world, are either destroyed or doomed to capture. The balance of naval power has inclined heavily toward the combination of England and Japan."

There is no such thing as a "yellow peril," this writer maintains. Western arms will not bestow Western civilization.

"The roots of Western superiority go far

deeper,—they are intellectual; they are economic; and it is the amazing fact about Japan that she understood this forty years ago. She did not whiten her face,—she civilized her heart. Just as her achievements in naval history are unparalleled, so, also, in the political and economic sphere there is nothing quite like the flying leap which she has taken in the lifetime of many of us from the habits, arms, and ideas of the Elizabethan age to the grim competition of the twentieth century. Retaining the old contempt for pain and death, and the old heroic aspirations, she has grafted on to them something even greater than the West can teach, in the strenuous earnestness of her life, her exalted patriotism, the ardor for science and research, and the will to go forward, at the cost of whatever sacrifices."

THE POSITION OF KOREA.

KOREA, as the stone of stumbling and rock of offense between Russia and Japan, is the subject of a long study by M. de Laguerie in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. The Hermit Kingdom, he says, furnishes the best region for both powers to send the swarms of emigrants which they are obliged to get rid of somehow every year. The climate is much better than that of Manchuria, the native population is not very great, and the soil is fertile.

It is not much good nowadays to relate the story of the various conventions made between Russia and Japan in regard to Korea; it is enough to show that geographically the Hermit Kingdom is the most convenient goal for Japanese emigrants, who are not, as is well known, welcomed in various other countries—such as the United States—on account of their competition in the labor market. M. de Laguerie also shows how useful Korea would be to Russia, particularly from the point of view of the Trans-Siberian Railway, which at present ends at Vladivostok and Port Arthur, but which it would be very convenient to connect with a more southern port. Masampho, he says, is the strategic and economic key to Korea.

The *Korea Review* (Seoul) continues to discuss the opposing rights of Russia and Japan in Korea. In its January number, it says (editorially):

"If we ask what Russia's interests are in Korea, we must frankly confess that we do not know. If we take the Russian press as evidence, it would seem that Korea is strategically necessary to Russia. If it is true that she wants to get a port in southern Korea which she can handle as she has Port Arthur, then the Russian press is apparently correct. There is no consid-

erable Russian trade in Korea, and geographical considerations seem to point in the same direction as the Russian papers have pointed. In what way the realization of this policy on the part of Russia will benefit Korea it is hard to see. . . . We do know that the demands which Japan makes on Korea do not include a single point that will not work as much to the interests of every other treaty power as to Japan herself. If the advocates of Russian predominance in the peninsula can make as good a showing as this, no reasonable man can object."

THE WAR FROM VARIOUS POINTS OF VIEW.

Some Japanese Views.

A NUMBER of prominent Japanese public men express their opinion of the war situation in the *Sun Trade Journal*, published in English and Japanese, in Tokio. Count Okuma, the veteran statesman, believes that "the real cause of the 'yellow peril' does not lie with Japan or with China, but with the gigantic neighbor of the north. . . . Japan wills to be the patron of civilization, and to protect a tottering empire and a kingdom from crumbling into dust." Dr. Soeda, president of the Japan Kogyo Bank, holds Russia to be a barbarous nation which must be combated for the sake of civilization. He says:

"It must be admitted that civilization has many weak points; and just as the northern barbarians came down upon and destroyed the Roman Empire, Russia, if left to her own way, may one day repeat the history, and give a fatal blow to the civilized world. If we do not civilize her, we shall be barbarized. . . . Above all, her aggressive policy must be restricted by the united force of those countries whose aim is peace and commerce, such as England, United States of America, Japan, etc. Russian occupation of Manchuria not only disturbs the peace and obstructs the commerce of the far East, but may one day endanger the world, because China, drilled and led by Russia, may bring into actuality the 'yellow peril.'"

The Hon. S. Shimada, an ex-member of the Diet, believes that, "if the millions and millions of the Orientals are destined to rise again, Japan will play the part of their savior. Nothing can be happier than to restore the race whose fate has been sealed for so many centuries." Hon. Kalrei Otani, of Tokio, declares that "Japan's development will never endanger the happy existence of other countries, as feared by some, but, on the contrary, she is compelled to appeal to force against her will for her own preservation and for the sake of humanity." Baron K.

Kujoura, minister of agriculture and commerce, believes that Japanese-American relations should be cultivated, and Baron K. Kaneko is strongly in favor of an economic alliance between the two countries. Closer relations, these gentlemen believe, will surely result, no matter how the present war end.

The *Nichi Nichi Shimbun* (Tokio) insists that the world has too great a stake in the future of Japan to be indifferent to her fate. Four thousand Occidentals are now actually living in Nippon, and they control fifty million out of the entire twenty thousand million francs which represent the wealth of the country. The *Koku-min Shimbun* (Tokio) believes that the United States is, in reality, an unavowed, silent partner in the British-Japanese alliance.

Two Russian Views.

The famous Russian painter, Verestchagin, has recently returned from a tour through Manchuria. He does not believe that that country, even with all its possibilities, is worth while fighting for by Russia. He declares (his views are presented editorially in the *Bibliothèque Universelle* [Lausanne]) that, whether Russia win or lose in the war, she will be the loser. A military defeat will be a great setback. If, on the other hand, she gains Manchuria and Korea, the war and the administration of these provinces will utterly wreck her finances.

A Russian writer (B. de Zenzinoff) who knows "only too well the faults and defects" of his fellow-countrymen reviews the first week of the war for the *Revue Bleue* (Paris). "We are cold," he says, "apathetic, lacking in initiative, and inveterate fatalists." Nevertheless, he contends, "despite this, the supremacy of Russia in the far East will be established in the end in a decisive way. Japan has adopted the arms of the West, its institutions, and its industry, and, in accordance with the old adage, she believes that fortune favors the bold. A young nation, she forgets the fact that military triumphs . . . are the result of the efforts and patience of several generations." Korea, he declares, will, in the end, be Russia's, even as Manchuria is to-day, and "Japan's ephemeral successes, the outcome of surprise and trick," will not avail in a prolonged struggle. The possible intervention of Great Britain or the United States "would indeed make much trouble for Russia, in forcing her to put forth a much greater effort, but it could not change the final result."

France on the War.

French reviews and journals have a somewhat difficult task in their effort to express admiration

for Japanese prowess without seeming to cast reflections on the efficiency of their ally. A few of the weeklies, however, such as *L'Illustration* (Paris), cannot forbear to praise the Japanese for their splendid organization and administrative ability. The two combatants, says J. C. Balet, in *L'Illustration*, are inevitable enemies, for reasons which are deep-seated in the politics and economics of both. This writer believes that the best and ablest Japanese are behind the enmity to Russia. The Elder Statesmen, he says, are as enthusiastic in the war as the populace itself. Referring to the fact that two of the ripest of Japanese statesmen, Counts Akuma and Itagaki, are not included in this famous body of advisers, this writer says: "The reason is that these two men have been the promoters of the parliamentary régime, the true founders of the *miniken*, or popular right, and the organizers of the two great political parties, the Liberals and the Radicals. Little by little, these institutions have taken away the power from the ancient order. . . . Akuma and Itagaki are to-day the spirit and backbone of the anti-Russian league, the Tairôdôshikwai, which has contributed so much to arouse the people."

French sympathies are entirely with Russia, says Francis Charmes in his political *chronique* in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* (Paris). There are no exceptions to this, he continues, save the Socialists, and they really do not represent a true French attitude. M. Charmes praises Mr. Hay for his proposition for the neutrality of China, but wonders just what the American secretary of state means by the expression "administrative entity." M. Charmes sees that the real object of the struggle is not so much Korea, or Manchuria, even,—it is the profitable position of tutor to China which is at stake. Writing on the morrow of the first Japanese successes at sea, M. Charmes expresses the opinion that, although the war would have been instantly ended if Russia had destroyed the Japanese fleet, yet the converse of this is not true,—Russia might lose the whole of her fleet, he says, without suffering any diminution of her power on land. He goes on to attribute what he evidently regards as the reckless audacity of the Japanese to the influence of their treaty with England, although at the same time he points out that the treaty was not universally approved in England. The English press, as a whole, is charged with having egged on the Japanese in a most dangerous manner.

A German Opinion.

Vice-Admiral D. Valois, writing in the *Deutsche Revue* (Berlin), gives his impressions of the

relative strength of Russia and Japan. A long acquaintance with Oriental conditions leads him to believe that, "by her geographical position, the spirit of her people, and the remarkable development of her economic life," Japan is well fitted to assume the rôle of the Great Britain of Asia. He points out the fact that, while by population Japan is much inferior to Russia, she has no boundaries to guard, her fleets can keep her island empire secure, while the vast territory of her antagonist must be policed, and its almost interminable frontier guarded at every point. The very existence of the Finns, the Poles, the Caucasians, and others makes it impossible for Russia to send even the larger part of her immense army to the scene of the present war.

From a Swiss Review.

In his comment on the war, the editor of the *Bibliothèque Universelle* (Lausanne) declares that the greatest, perhaps the only real, service France can render her ally is to prevent other nations from helping Japan. When the Emperor Nicholas addressed his soldiers as "brothers," this writer says further, he touched upon the great fact of Russia's weakness,—if they were recognized as his brothers, it would mean a different Russia in the future.

RUSSIA'S ECONOMIC PEASANT PROBLEM.

THE gradual economic decline of the peasantry forms a very characteristic feature of the recent economic history of Russia. As the impoverishment of the rural population goes hand-in-hand with the growth of manufactures and the rapid increase in the financial resources of the government, we find, as a result, something paradoxical. The population grows poorer, and the government enriches its treasury with the surplus of the funds collected from the people, in which it shares with the representatives of its favorite branches of industry. The whole problem is stated by L. Slonimski, in the *Vyestnik Evropy* (St. Petersburg) for January, in the course of a book review. This writer says:

"From 1893 to 1903, the government treasury received, from popular taxation, 1,300,000,000 rubles more than its estimate called for, and this surplus was realized, not from profits, but from the property of the population, which has become quite accustomed to semi-starvation. Tempted by the possibility of dispensing with the established form of the budget, through its unlimited and free resources, the financial department of the government disregarded the most elementary rules of wise financial policy, which

prescribes, first of all, that the resources of the population must be spared rather than its economic condition made unbearable in order to enrich the government treasury.

AN ABNORMAL ECONOMIC SYSTEM.

"As to the economic results of the financial system which has existed up to the present, all experts and investigators of our [Russian] government finances, of whatever shade of opinion, agree, and, in this sense, the series of articles by the well-known social economist, A. A. Radtzig, which have recently appeared is very instructive. Radtzig quotes many facts and figures showing the abnormality of our economic conditions. During the seventies of the past century, the revenue from indirect taxation amounted to about 3 rubles *per capita*, and in 1901 it exceeded 5 rubles. The price of all goods bought by the country people was raised artificially by duties, but agricultural products, on the other hand, have decreased in value. The number of cattle used for field labor has decreased to a great degree, an extensive rural proletariat is being formed, and agriculture is being undermined at its very foundation. Meanwhile, the surplus of the income of the government treasury is liberally spent upon the maintenance of special metallurgical enterprises, the building of unprofitable railroads, and in acquiring shares of machine-building factories.

HOW PROTECTION AFFECTS THE PEASANT.

"The high protective duties and excises with which the necessary articles for use and consumption are taxed impose upon the country a heavy drain which is unprofitable even for the government. Obstacles to the importation of coal and similar staples make production unproportionally dearer, and hinder the development of that very industry about which the government is anxious. For the past twenty-five years, says Radtzig, the duty on coal brought to the ports of the Black Sea has increased the cost of the export of our grain to foreign countries, and the importation of grain from Argentina has been, in consequence, made cheaper than the use of Russian grain. Moreover, because of this, the destruction of the forests,—used instead of coal,—has increased. Nor was it possible to justify the one-sided protection of iron-manufacturing. The high price of iron increases the cost of the building of railroads, factories, bridges, waterworks, etc., and of the very implements for cultivating the soil. The high price of coal and iron has an influence also on our railroad tariffs, which are, in many cases, considerably higher than those abroad. The transportation of grain,

for example, costs twice as much here as in America, and, despite all this, the farmer has to pay, while the products of the protected iron-manufacturers are carried for almost nothing.

"The falsely directed protective system, checking imports, also limits exports, and thus leads, in general, to a steady blocking of the freedom of commerce. Our internal trade stands now on the same low level where it stood twenty years ago, in spite of the erection of a whole net of new roads. The excessive custom duties enrich single producers at the expense of the whole population, but decidedly obstruct the development of industry in the country. The duty on cotton, amounting to as high as 4 rubles 15 kopecks *per pood* (40 pounds), forms an impost upon the consumers of as much as sixty millions a year. Cotton plantations would have flourished in central Asia and in the Trans-Caucasian states if the duty were not higher than 25 kopecks *per pood*, although to spread the cultivation of cotton to such an extent as to make the importation from America unnecessary is, for obvious reasons, impossible. But, thanks to the high duties put on American cotton, the Persians increased correspondingly the prices on their imported cotton, and receive from the Russian consumers a surplus of three million rubles a year. Almost all articles of consumption are dearer with us, such as tea, sugar, coffee, brandy, etc. As a result, the whole population, especially the rural portion, feels upon its back the weight of the artificial industrial protection."

THE PEASANT PROBLEM.

In a book by Talmachev, recently published, this writer continues, "we find an interesting digest of opinion of provincial and local people on the peasant question," beginning with the government conferences in 1894 and ending with the work of the committees on the requirements of rural domestic production. In these opinions, "a sad picture is presented of the uninterrupted decline of the peasantry under the influence of causes and circumstances" created or kept up by the one-sided financial policy of the empire.

"Everywhere complaints are raised constantly against the intolerable weight of payments and duties, against the disproportionate impost of indirect taxes laid on articles of primary importance to the masses, and the consequent derangement of the economic conditions of the peasantry. In the government of Tula, for example, the outstanding debts in rural societies increased from 3 per cent. to 244 per cent.; the number of horseless farms from 18 per cent. to 35 per cent.; 37 per cent. of grown-up male adults are com-

pelled to seek outside work in order to cover up the chronic deficits. And similar conditions prevail in other provinces.

"Almost all rural economic committees point to the injurious influence of protection on agricultural industry. All the benefits and advantages accrue to the manufacturing industries, whereas all the weight of the tax lies on the rural economy. Out of the whole sum of direct taxes, more than half is paid exclusively by the agricultural classes. Besides, the peasantry maintain, out of their own pockets, the rural administration, which serves the interest of the population as a whole. Yet the peasantry is, above all, burdened with the imposts and high duties on goods imported."

THE RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMITTEES.

The majority of the reform committees then formulated their proposition. In order to uplift the rural industry, they declared, "it is necessary—(1) to discontinue the one-sided protective policy with regard to manufacturing enterprises; (2) to lighten the burden on the peasantry, and (3) to gradually introduce an income tax. By taking off a part of the intolerable burden from the peasantry and putting it on the wealthier classes of manufacturers and capitalists, a well-regulated development of the social economy could be made possible, and would prepare the soil for future enterprises, of which, under the given conditions, it is even useless to think. Together with the financial equality, there must go also a judicial. It is impossible to leave the peasantry in the position of pariahs, deprived of the right of freedom of movement and of personal inviolability.

RADICAL REFORM NECESSARY.

"The whole rural administration must be changed fundamentally. Many of the committees maintain that the present rural administration is entirely unsatisfactory; that, while it lays on the peasantry the whole burden and care of the communal and government requirements, it furnishes them, in compensation, neither the material means nor the corresponding personal strength and due competence in the management of affairs.

"Deprived of power and authority, the rural municipal administration has not the possibility of either providing due assistance and protection to its citizens or managing the communal affairs. The rural administration ought to transform its management to correspond with that of the city and district administrations. The committees suggest, for the peasantry, a number of departures from the general laws, and from

the enactments of the civil and criminal legislatures.

"Almost all the committees reject capital punishment, which has an injurious and demoralizing effect, the more terrible as the dishonor of the one punished falls upon the whole family. At the same time, the committees insist upon raising the intellectual and moral standard of the peasantry by means of education."

Similar demands were made twenty years ago by the state secretary, Khakhanov, for the committee appointed by the emperor, but the results of his labor were buried in the ministerial bureau, and now the same ideas have cropped up in the report of every committee on rural industry since 1894.

HOLLAND'S GREATEST LIVING PAINTER.

THE Dutch people have just celebrated the eightieth birthday of Josef Israëls, the "Nestor of modern Dutch painting." This tribute was merited to the full, says Frederick W. Morton, editor of *Brush and Pencil*.

"The man's achievement entitled him to the homage paid by his friends and admirers. For upward of sixty years he has painted in Holland with a zeal and an enthusiasm nothing less than—



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PEN-AND-INK SKETCH BY JOSEF ISRAËLS.

indefatigable, and he is painting to-day with ardor undampened by time and abilities untouched by age. Every new canvas from his studio is awaited expectantly, and is confidently heralded as a new masterpiece. The festival thus comes as the climax of an honored career."

ISRAËLS' METHODS.

Israëls achieved fame by methods quite unique. He is "not a master draughtsman; his perception, from student days, has lacked precision." He has no particular technique, and is not a distinguished colorist. He has "systematically ignored or violated almost every principle and practice by which other artists have won fame,—draughtsmanship, technique, coloring, beauty of subject, decorative treatment, even community of experience with the people portrayed,—and yet, by an interpretative sense and a power peculiarly his own, he has made himself the acknowledged leader, the central figure, in his nation's art, and commands universal homage accordingly." Israëls, the artist, Mr. Morton continues, is the direct product of his time.

He is great because he touched people's sympathies. He depicts the stern reality touched with tenderness of his countrymen. "Shadow and sorrow have so largely dominated his later and his best-known works as to make him a pictorial specialist of the stern or the dark side of life." And yet "one cannot but think that Israëls has proved the futility of much of his best effort. His noblest pictures are those in which the minor chord, the note of despair, are wholly wanting,—pictures, for example, like 'The Evening Meal' and 'Round the Dish,' in which there is expressed simplicity, dignity, contentment, humble family pride, kindness of heart,—in short, those qualities which appeal imperatively to the normal heart, whether seen in the rich or the poor, at home or abroad.

"Couched in brief phrase, this, then, is the essence of Israëls' method,—he works by intuition and gropes, uncertainly, laboriously, toward a desired end. That end, it should be said, is invariably attained; but its attainment is due not so much to the man's comprehension and mastery of the means at the disposal of the painter as to his devotion to a purpose and his willingness to struggle with a problem until he has mastered it to his own satisfaction."

THE EURIPIDES OF MODERN PICTORIAL ART.

In the same issue of the magazine, Dr. Frank W. Gunsaulus (president of the Armour Institute, Chicago) has an appreciation of Israëls, in which he declares that the artist, while a He-

brew of the Hebrews, is "much more than an Israelite in deed and in truth." There is no guile in him. He exemplifies the true Greek spirit. "He is the Euripides of modern pictorial art." He is intensely human. "Josef Israëls has painted the heart of the human child so completely, even in his treatment of the oldest of his characters,—for his figures are nothing less than characters,—and he has also discovered for us the significance of laborious age, or resistless strength of body and mind, even in the smallest tot playing with boats upon a little ocean of his own, that one must turn to him as one turns to a supreme poet for the interpretation of himself. The secret of this magnificent sweep of things and of the validity of his interpretation lies wholly in his personality. . . . No one since Rembrandt has so made the physical universe, which both of them have drawn upon but sparsely, so palpitant with human emotion, sympathy, desire, and an aspiration entirely human."

THE POPE AND CHURCH MUSIC.

THE world is gradually becoming aware that the successor of Leo XIII. in the chair of St. Peter is a reformer of the most thoroughgoing kind, who is destined to leave a deep mark upon the history of his time. One of the most characteristic of his reforms is that in church music, which is discussed in an interesting article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* by M. Bellaigue. This subject is of much interest, at present, to American Catholics. He shows us that the policy of the Pope in this matter is simply a continuation of that which he himself developed in a pastoral letter issued nearly ten years ago, when he was still Cardinal Sarto, the Patriarch of Venice. The Papal *motu proprio* lays it down that there should be nothing in the churches to trouble or diminish piety and devotion, nothing which could give the faithful a reasonable cause of disgust or scandal, nothing, above all, which could offend against the decorum or the holiness of the ceremonies, nothing which would be unworthy of the house of prayer and of the majesty of God. His Holiness goes on to explain how church music has undergone a gradual degradation in the course of ages, which renders it open to these charges of being unworthy of its high office. Without going into details, it may be said generally that the Pope is determined to put an end to anything like secular music in churches, or anything like a secular mode of rendering the music. The Gregorian and the Palestrina chants will be preferred in future, especially the former, and, generally speaking,

the music will be subordinated, and will revert to its original position as the handmaid, instead of being the mistress, of religion.

SOME RECENT ASPECTS OF DARWINISM.

THREE recently published works dealing with the origin of species challenge the Darwinian theory, and two of them are "frankly skeptical as to the sufficiency of natural selection." These works are: "Doubts About Darwinism," by a Semi-Darwinian; "Evolution and Adaptation," by Thomas Hunt Morgan (noticed in this REVIEW for February), and "Mendel's Principles of Heredity: A Defense," with a translation of Mendel's original papers on hybridization, by W. Bateson. A review of these three books (in the *Atlantic* for April) restates the entire controversy between the followers of Darwin, Weismann, Lamarck, and Galton, and traces the progress in scientific knowledge, in the light of the theses set forth in these works. The reviewer (E. T. Brewster) believes that science will benefit by the fearless questioning of the new speculative thinkers in the realm of biology, but deplores the splitting up into warring sects. He sums up by saying:

THE PRESENT STATUS OF DARWINISM.

"Darwin taught that species arise sometimes by the selection of one kind of variation, or the other, or both; sometimes by the inheritance of acquired characters; sometimes by the direct influence of environment; sometimes by discontinuous variation without selection; and was quite ready to admit any other factor for which there might be evidence in any particular case. Weismann, Wallace, and the Neo-Darwinians, finding that selection is a good explanation in a large number of cases, straightway conclude that it is the only factor, and are prepared to excommunicate everybody who agrees with Darwin. The Neo-Lamarckians, on the other hand, finding that the direct influence of the environment and the inheritance of acquired characters are often the better explanations, decide that selection is of no particular importance, and set themselves to account for the world without it. Finally enter Morgan, De Vries, and the believers in the new Theory of Mutations,—which isn't so very new,—who, because Nature, in defiance of the proverb, does get ahead *per saltum*, are ready to shake off the dust of their feet at Neo-Darwinians and Neo-Lamarckians alike. . . . I venture to interpret the Mutation Theory as a wholesome reaction against the extreme Selectionism of Weismann, and one sign that the world is coming back to the more moderate and saner Darwin-

ism of Darwin. Nevertheless, when all is said, Natural Selection, in some form or other, would be a logical necessity if it were not a matter of fact. Though the future should discover a thousand factors of organic evolution, Natural Selection would still be one of them, and Professor Morgan, or anybody else, who attempts to account for the living world without it will find that, like Alice in the Looking-glass Country, when he thinks he has at last got out of sight of the house, he is just walking in at the front door."

A FRENCH JUDGMENT OF JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER.

A RATHER hysterical warning to Europeans against "money kings" appears in *La Revue* (Paris), by L. de Norvins, who takes for his text the fortune of Mr. John D. Rockefeller and that millionaire's alleged uncertainty as to how to bestow it upon his death. This writer characterizes the head of the Standard Oil Company as one of the most dangerous men in the world. He says:

"This man has for his mission to demonstrate that crime against fortune, public or private, is not simply an individual wrongdoing. The guardians of the law, powerless to apprehend the real criminals, offer us in their place only the unfortunate or awkward speculators. The American prisons, therefore, are full of victims of financial catastrophes, while the author of these 'crashes' makes his way over a road strewn with ruin and devastation to the conquest of his 'empire.' And if he has been able to put up the price of commodities which the world must have, he can also boast of having worked with equal success at reducing the wages of the workingman. This great master of the criminal code, nevertheless, must be credited with never having lacked in boldness. If he was one of the first to violate the law against trusts, he has been at the same time the man who has violated them most openly and most frequently.

"This terrific devastating game of finance is a sort of toboggan-slide with the Yankees. Some go up and some go down. . . . It is a spectacle which is very interesting, but the number of the unaffected spectators grows less each day. The laborers and the small renters, the first victims of this great robbery, have begun to show signs of impatience. A day will come when all these discontents will have some representation in the Congress. I hope sincerely, for my American friends, that their intelligent resistance will begin in time to save their great republic from the worst and most dangerous of despotisms,—great moneyed men, stronger than the law."

NEW OBSERVATIONS ON TUBERCULOSIS.

AN interesting account of his observations in several hundred cases of tuberculosis in the Medical University Polyclinic of Marburg is contributed by Dr. E. Schwartzkopf to the *Deutsche Archiv für Klinische Medizin* (Leipsic).

Two other physicians had found that most of the cases of tuberculosis in the various houses of Marburg could be traced to infection.

Hereditary influence or a special predisposition to the disease could not explain why healthy persons should contract it after living in certain houses, nor could it account for the great frequency of tuberculosis among the children in these houses.

But it was also noted how tuberculosis rages in certain families, and it remained an open question whether heredity and predisposition might not play an important rôle in the development of the disease in individual cases. In the hospital, closer observations could be made on patients and more complete information obtained concerning the history of cases than would be possible outside.

From observations made in this way, the writer states that "among the women in the hospital, 61 per cent. of those affected with tuberculosis had unquestionably been exposed to infection, while among those who did not have tuberculosis, only 24 per cent. had been exposed to infection. . . . Almost any one may chance to take a colony of the bacilli into his system, but the blood is naturally resistant to disease-germs, and, usually, repeated infection is necessary before a case of lung tuberculosis will develop. . . . The danger of contracting tuberculosis increases with the number of patients in the neighborhood, and with the duration of the exposure. A case of infection in childhood which becomes real lung tuberculosis by the thirteenth year is rarely cured, and the chance of recovery is less if renewed infection takes place. After the age of fourteen years, a person becomes more susceptible to the disease, and the susceptibility becomes constantly greater up to the age of forty. . . . There is no danger to the community from patients suffering with tuberculosis if proper precautions are taken in disposing of the discharges from the lungs. . . . As for inheritance of the disease, heredity has not the least influence in the origin of tuberculosis of the lungs. That depends upon infection."

REAL CAUSES OF INFECTION.

Among the cases that came under observation, there were fewer patients whose parents had had tuberculosis than whose parents had not been affected. The danger from tuberculous

parents does not seem to lie in an innate tendency to develop the disease, but in the great exposure to infection by living with such parents, and, in that case, there is more danger from the mother than from the father, because she is more closely associated with the family. The question is not whether any one in the family has died of tuberculosis, but whether the patient has lived with the rest of the family. Many observers agree that from six months to a year and a half may elapse between the time of infection and the appearance of unmistakable symptoms of the disease, but there is a possibility that the latent period is much longer.

It cannot be said that a case of tuberculosis always results when the bacilli are taken into the body, for we know that—among the poorer classes, at least—almost every one over eighteen years of age harbors a colony of tuberculosis bacilli. Most of the tubercular changes remain latent, and the disease becomes manifest only in the minority of cases; but a person whose system has been infected with tuberculosis from childhood, although the disease may have remained latent, is much more susceptible to it if exposed later in life.

The very frequent occurrence of tuberculosis among the children of the poorer classes was shown by *post mortem* examination of the patients in the hospitals. Seventeen per cent. of all such examinations for children from one to five years of age showed tuberculous changes, and 33 per cent. of those from five to fourteen years of age.

A UNIQUE PREVENTIVE OF RACE SUICIDE.

ONE of the latest attempts to arrest the decreasing population in France is a unique institution which is called "The Drop of Milk," founded several years ago, in Paris, by Drs. Variot and Budin, assisted by a wealthy Parisian philanthropist. This institution is for the maintenance of children during the first six months of their lives, and its care is that they shall receive the proper nourishment until they have safely passed the dangers of early infancy. The children, mostly of the laboring classes, are brought to the institution upon stated days for examination, and the mothers receive a card of admission entitling them to a certain number of bottles of sterilized milk. This is to be given at home in accordance with the directions given by the physician at the institution. In general, the infants are left with their parents, but the conditions require that the mother bring the child regularly,—first, to have it weighed, that the effect of the alimentation may be ascertained; second, that the mother may take part

"THE DROP OF MILK."—THE PARIS INSTITUTION FOR THE CARE OF WEAK INFANTS.
(From the painting by J. Geoffroy.)

in the school of instruction ; and, third, for the regular distribution of the milk. Infants of all classes, rich and poor, are admitted. There is a pay section, a reduced-rate section, and a free section. For the guidance and instruction of the mothers, the bottles are labeled (the institution retaining a duplicate of each label) with instructions to the mother, a statement of the condition of the child, and its weight, by dates. In a description of the work of this institution in the *Revue Universelle*, Gustave Lejeal says :

"Of the 850,000 children who are born every year in Paris, at least 148,000 die before completing their first year ; that is, at the rate of 16 per hundred, for almost half of the total mortality of the first year occurs in the first two months. It is, therefore, especially during the first two months that the infant needs to be carefully nourished. From these figures, one can judge of the important influence this 'Drop of Milk' will have on future generations, and it is not an exaggeration to characterize this work of Dr. Variot as an important contribution to social progress."

TRANSMIGRATION FROM A HINDU STANDPOINT.

A HINDU swami, who signs himself Ananda M., contributes to the new quarterly review, *Buddhism* (published in Rangoon, Burma, for the International Buddhist Society), a study of what transmigration really signifies to the Buddhist. Twenty-five pages of close reasoning lead him to the conclusion which he gives in the following paragraph :

"To live in love with all that lives, not seeking

or not earning for to-morrow's guerdon ; to make of his life an oasis in the desert of self-desire ; to strive ever, even here and now, after true Love and Wisdom and the Perfect Peace,—this is for the Buddhist the supreme ideal, the glory of his Dhamma, and the hope of all his ways. All else,—all thought of future gain on life for self,—is but a mockery and delusion. As something real and true, as Buddhaghosa tells us, there rises in us the thought 'I am,' 'I was,' or 'I shall be.' And it is all illusion, the dewdrop deeming itself a permanent and separate entity, though the waters which compose it lay yesterday in the ocean's depths, and with the dawning light will rise and melt into the wandering airs. But if this universal life be ever-changing, sorrowful, and without a soul, there is still, our religion teaches, an end and a cessation. Thought is the creator of these worlds, the builder of this earthly tabernacle, the maker of illusion ; and to him who gains the victory over thought comes in this life the unutterable peace. He is the victor who here and now has triumphed over ignorance ; who has overcome all passion, hatred, and illusion, and has passed where nevermore the woes of earth can come. To him is joy beyond all joy we know,—the joy of liberation from this vanity of life ; who knows that for him rebirth is finished and his toil at end ; and that when death shall claim his body there will be no more of change or sorrow or delusion, even as the master has said :

"Decay must come to all that is,
Impermanent the elements of life !
What has been born must cease to be ;
Surely in cessation alone is happiness !"

THE INCEPTION OF THE SUEZ CANAL.

M. CHARLES ROUX, formerly Deputy from Marseilles in the French Parliament, and vice-president of the Suez Canal Grand Council, has just completed his two-volume history of the inception and execution of the canal project. This work, under the title "The Isthmus and the Canal of Suez. Its History and Its Present Status," has just been issued in Paris. It is remarkably full and complete. The whole history of European commercial expansion, from the time of Venetian supremacy, with the different efforts to reach the far East, are recounted by M. Roux, and the complete story of Ferdinand De Lesseps' work is given. (A review of this book appears in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*.) This writer declares that, not only the idea of the Suez Canal, but that of the Panama waterway, originated in the philosophical speculations of the famous Saint Simonian, Père Enfantin. He concludes, from one of Enfantin's letters, written in 1827:

"To-day, I feel that my face is turned irresistibly toward the Orient. . . . It is for us to bring into being, between ancient Egypt and old Judea, one of the new highways of Europe to India and China. Later, we must also cut through another at Panama. We will then plant one foot on the Nile, the other on Jerusalem. Our right hand will stretch to Mexico, our left arm will cover Rome and reach even to Paris. Suez is the center of our life of effort. There we will accomplish the deed which the world waits to admit that we are indeed strong men of courage."

THE MYSTERIOUS MORO CHARACTER.

RECENT events have again roused our Yankee curiosity regarding that strange people, the Moros. Up to the present time, about the only channel through which it has been possible for Americans to come into touch with these Malays has been that afforded by the military arm of the government. It was shown by Chaplain Bateman, in an article contributed to a recent number of this Review, that the Moro is dominated to an unusual degree by the military instinct, and that for this reason army officers seem best fitted to deal with him wisely. In the current number of the *Journal of the Military Service Institution*, the same writer dwells upon certain striking facts revealed by these official relations.

In opening communication with the authorities of occupation, the Moro sultan, or datto, is often moved, not so much by a purpose to serve the foreigners as by his vainglorious desire to make

prominent his own military importance, thus subserving personal ends. He may, too, plan to enlist the military power against some neighbor.

"He will usually be cautious in the use of words spoken in the hearing of those of his own race whom he distrusts. He prefers to 'talk privately to the commandante.' A cabinet *séance* with the commanding officer is made the basis of extraordinary tales, which he narrates with gusto to his jealous rivals for recognition.

"Such interviews serve to acquaint the authorities with scandals, grievances, local hatreds, entertained by villages or persons, and family feuds of long standing.

INTERNECINE WARFARE.

"As the acquaintance becomes more intimate, the absence of solidarity among Moros generally becomes apparent. While there exists the remotest prospect of reaching a coveted result, the Moro is a 'lifelong brother;' but since by instinct and tradition he is a freebooter, just as by principle and practice he is a confirmed liar, it may soon become evident that he is the best possible witness against himself. His proposals of reprisal are mentally, if not orally, rejected by the officer who is learning what manner of man is before him.

"Information furnished against a thief was found prompted, not by a desire to punish a criminal, but wholly by a knowledge that the robber possessed valuable brass vessels and stores of rice which the informant hoped to seize during the eagerly anticipated engagement with troops. When the information so imparted failed of its purpose, the 'loyalty' of that Moro dropped to the zero mark, and he became worthless as a future agent.

"Even the best of Moro secret-service men are prone to grow lukewarm after they have been serviceable in one or two instances. They appear to lose their courage from fear of the tribesman's vengeance.

AN UNTRAVELED PEOPLE.

"No one Moro has been discovered by our officers who is largely useful in several capacities or in widely separated localities. One may not lay before a Moro a proposed plan of operations among a people unknown to him, or residing in a region with which he is unacquainted, and expect him to carry the same into successful execution. He simply has not the requisite intelligence and nerve to do it. Some one must be found who resides near the objective. The Moro mind cannot grasp a proposition covering broad ground. Mental exercise is confined to a small circle of persons and places."

The Sulus, it is true, have traveled farther than the Moros of Mindanao, but all Moros, says Mr. Bateman, are deficient in a sense of time and space. "They do not know how old they are, or how far it is by rational comparison from one place to another. There are not a few old lake Moros who have never visited a town on the sea-coast. Twenty miles is to them a great distance. The constant intertribal wars have restrained the timid from travel."

PLAYING ON THE MORO'S VANITY.

Mr. Bateman emphasizes egotism as one of the marked attributes of the Moro, and shows how the presence of this trait is a recognized factor in our dealings with him. "When proffer of friendship is once made to a leader, it has been found advantageous to pay no further attention to him. To ignore him for a time is the surest way to reach him through his inordinate vanity. Rank and prestige are the twin idols of his heart, dearer than life itself. Some fine morning he will appear unexpected, unannounced, to inform the commanding officer that he has always been his brother."

THE ORIENTAL VIEW-POINT.

"To judge Moros by inflexible Occidental standards of motives and morals is to lose at once the key to the situation. The very structure of their language differentiates them from ourselves. Verbs are in the passive voice. The man who was slashed and killed provoked the trouble. The under dog in the fight is always the aggressor. The thief is not blamed for 'finding' things lying about at loose ends; the man who lost the property is the real criminal,—besides, he is a fool. If he were a sensible man, he would have exercised vigilance against the approach of the thief. Moros reverse everything. Like all Orientals, they venerate the past and their folklore; myths and legends abound in tales not unlike those of the 'Arabian Nights Entertainment.'

"They turn to the left of the road, extend the left hand naturally in greeting, and the scribes write from right to left, turning the paper sideways, as any left-handed man would do.

THE WRITTEN LANGUAGE.

"Letter-writing enters extensively into military relations. This correspondence affords a study in mental habit and process. A small proportion only of Moros are able to express their thoughts in written characters. These scribes use what passes for Arabic vowel and consonant marks, as they spell out phonetically the mother tongue. They possess little real

knowledge of pure Arabic, even the current form of the characters is an appreciable departure from the standard.

"The average pandita cannot read a line in the Koran unless the text is in the vernacular. With a single exception, I am not aware that there is a man among the lake Moros who can read and write with ease and accuracy Arabic proper. The Koran is referred to as the 'Kitab,' and copies are common possessions."

THE STRUGGLE FOR THE PACIFIC.

THAT the peace of the world and the repose of Europe should ever depend upon a decision made at Tokio by the Mikado and his ministers is a fact of which the great Napoleon never dreamed, and which would have greatly surprised Prince Bismarck. But the consequence of the expansion of European races to the ends of the earth have made this not only possible, but actual. In this way, M. René Pinon begins, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, a study of the struggle between the world-powers for the control of the Pacific Ocean. "The Pacific become a Mediterranean" is a paradox of yesterday which has become a reality of to-day.

"Around this gigantic sea most of the great powers which for centuries in Europe have been the leaders in history are represented. England, Germany, Russia, France, and Holland have taken their positions on this battlefield of the future. They have established their counting-houses close by their markets. . . . Here we have on this scene the old nations in competition with the youngest states to which they have given birth,—the United States, the Dominion of Canada, the Australian Federation—and Japan."

ALL-IMPORTANCE OF THE FAR EAST.

That power which exploits the riches of China will dominate the great ocean. In the words of Prince Henry of Orleans, "he who knows how to make his voice heard in the extreme Orient can also talk very loudly in the rest of the world." M. Pinon considers in order the different countries which have interest in the Pacific. It is Japan's supreme aim, he says, "to create and sustain an army and navy able to vanquish Russia, and to exercise hegemony in the waters of the far East; to assume at the same time the rôle of educator of the Celestial Empire, protector of its integrity, and arouser of its energies; . . . to place the yellow race in such a condition that it will be able to drive the Europeans from far-eastern Asia, take from them their colonies, free all the yellow peoples, and

dominate, like an Asiatic Great Britain, over all the seas and islands of the western Pacific."

The writer elaborates his argument as to the necessity for Japanese expansion for reasons of overpopulation. Having Formosa, which is a strong strategic point in the Pacific, Japan, he continues, must have Korea, and, in the end, Manchuria also. He does not believe that, even though victorious, the Japanese could seriously harm Russia. It would be better for them, he argues, to come to an understanding with the Muscovite now.

ENTER THE UNITED STATES.

The appearance of the United States in the extreme Orient he characterizes as dramatic. When Admiral Dewey destroyed the Spanish fleet at Manila Bay, the United States became, "not only a commercial power of the first order, but a territorial and military power." He believes that President Roosevelt is openly aiming at the control of the Pacific. He enumerates the strategic advantages of American possessions washed by Pacific waters, and recounts American commercial triumphs in the far East. The Americanization of Asia, he says, has begun, and the completion of the Panama Canal "will realize the audacious predictions of President Roosevelt." Japan "caught between the expansion of the Russian and the American,—can she succeed in remaining a great power? This is one of the most interesting problems of the future." Great Britain, he declares, will not dominate the Pacific, because her various possessions in and on the waters of that ocean have no common interest. Australia and Canada have the most vital concern, but nothing in common with the rest of the empire. The alliance with Japan, "if one looks for its foundation motives, would seem to be a desperate attempt to arrest the march of Russia into northern China, and to maintain the 'open door' in the Middle Kingdom." But, "in fortifying the position of Japan in the far East, and in furnishing her with capital to develop her economic resources, and giving her by this alliance a standing among civilized powers, is not England working with her own hands for the success of the most dangerous of her rivals?" Germany has important possessions in the Pacific, especially Kiao-Chau, but these cannot exercise a dominating influence.

WILL HOLLAND LOSE HER COLONIES?

Holland has vast regions under her control in the East Indies, but not enough capital to develop their resources. M. Pinon is afraid that she will lose these some day, because "islands as large as continents, which remain unproduc-

tive and unexploited because their owners have no capital, present in our times a great temptation to peoples fairly bursting to open new avenues for their population; abstract right without force to back it up will some day not be a sufficient safeguard for the Dutch colonies." The possessions of France do not permit her to play an important rôle in this struggle, this writer admits, but he criticises the French Government for its proposal to sell its Polynesian islands to the United States. This would be a fault, he says, without excuse and without remedy.

THE FINAL ALIGNMENT.

With the combatants ready for the fray, and pressed behind by imperious national necessities for homes and markets "on this stage of the Antipodes, history takes on new aspects, and is overturning the old theory of the problem of national rule.

"Here there is no house of Austria, no Turkey, no Italy, no ancient antagonism between Christian and Mussulman. Spain disappeared from the stage at the moment when the curtain was rung up; England and France still figure, but at the rear of the stage, in the same rank with little Holland. The Britannic race plays a star part, but it is not the old England,—it is the two figures, Australia and Canada. Finally, all the front of the stage is taken up by the struggle between the two colossuses, Russia and America, for the mastery of the continent and of the Pacific,—if, perhaps, they are not forced to make room for the audacious little yellow man,—the Jap,—he to be followed, it may be, by the Chinaman."

THE GERMANS IN KIAO-CHAU.

WHAT the Germans have done and are doing in their Chinese colony is described by a writer in the *Deutsche Rundschau* (Berlin). The German protectorate was founded, according to this writer (Lieut.-Gen. A. von Janson), who has just returned from a visit to Kiao-Chau, for the double purpose of providing a safe shelter for the German Asiatic squadron and opening up a market for the development of German trade. A coaling station and a suitable dock for repairing the ships were to be included. A purely military station, such as England might have established, was out of the question for the German Empire, and, with the limited choice of territory still available for a Chinese market, Kiao-Chau was the best, and certainly superior to Wei-Hai-Wei. Kiao-Chau cannot, of course, be compared to Hongkong, because the condi-

tions in the latter are so exceptionally favorable,—more favorable, indeed, than can perhaps ever be found again in any other part of the world. In England, the principle followed is that of trade first and government afterward; but as there was no market ready to hand left for the Germans to take in China, it was their duty to try to create one, if possible, and so prepare the way for German enterprise. The writer then describes what the Germans have already achieved in their new colony, and what they may hope to attain in the future.

HOW THE TOWN LOOKS.

The town of Kiao-Chau seems to be situated, not in the colony itself, but outside, in neutral territory. Chinese troops may not be stationed here, but German troops may move about with perfect freedom. On the other hand, Germany may not acquire any territory here. Fuel appears to be very scarce, for everywhere in the non-agricultural districts the smallest plants are collected as a possible substitute for firewood. From the middle of July to the middle of September, there are heavy rains, and as the force of the water washes away all before it, it is useless to attempt any kind of vegetation on the rocks which hem in the place. The low, flat districts are covered with field produce, and one cannot help admiring the industry of the Chinese, working all day in their little fields, knowing that their crops may at any time be destroyed in a few hours by the force of the waters. If a flood does come, they submit without much ado to what seems to them the inevitable, and begin over again.

When the Germans came to the town, the conditions seemed hopeless,—dirty houses, want of water, etc.; but now, after five years, there is a flourishing town with European buildings and wide streets, and new villages have been built for most of the displaced Chinese inhabitants; in fact, no Chinese, except those who are servants to Europeans, are allowed to live in the town itself,—they are relegated to the business district, near the harbor and the railway. Everything possible has been done to insure cleanliness and healthy conditions. During the five years of the colony, the progress which trade has made has been satisfactory, on the whole, but there remains much to be done. So far as the administration of the colony is concerned, there is little cause for complaint. Provision has been made for the education of the colonists, and evangelical missions have charge of the education of the Chinese. An evangelical church, too, has been provided, and the Catholic missionaries conduct services for Catholics.

AN ITALIAN VIEW OF INTERNATIONAL ARBITRATION.

SIGNOR ERCOLA VIDARI discusses, in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), the probable results of the arbitration treaties which have been made or are about to be made between certain European powers. The French Revolution, he reminds us, proclaimed the fraternity of all nations, and then turned Europe into a shambles. Nicholas II. succeeded in constituting the court of arbitration at The Hague in 1899. Now he rushes into war in order to control Manchuria and Korea, without any regard for the interests of China, Japan, or England. England has conquered the Transvaal and added it to her empire. The United States, the last convert to the imperial idea, has snatched from the crown of Spain both Cuba and the Philippines. Thus, "fact has prevailed over fancy; the concrete overcome the abstract." If we are to believe their words, all desire peace,—Germany, Austria, Italy. "But can France desire peace while she still smarts under the loss of Alsace-Lorraine? Can England and Russia desire peace while they stand confronted as implacable rivals in central Asia and the far East?"

ARBITRATION NOT FOR GREAT QUESTIONS.

He thinks that arbitration is only practicable in deciding small international questions which are not worth the risk of a great war,—questions such as the Alabama claims and the Alaska and Venezuela boundary questions. But when an international difference touches the very existence of a country, its national honor, its policy of territorial expansion, every state is inclined to decide for itself and to cry hands off to all who would interpose the plea of arbitration. "For all wars are not unrighteous. The causes maintained at Marathon, at Lagnano, and at Solferino were just and holy. Even offensive wars are justifiable, such as that by which Greece asserted her independence against Turkey, and such as the wars of Piedmont against Austria." He thinks that all that can be done is to abate the horrors of war by avoiding such atrocities as the use of explosive projectiles, the poisoning of wells, the bombardment of unfortified cities, the massacre of prisoners and non-combatants, and the robbery of private individuals, whether hostile or neutral.

The writer proceeds to give an account of the origin of the conference and the arbitration tribunal of The Hague. He points out that, although the Czar of Russia was a prime mover in the constitution of the arbitration tribunal, "he did not submit to the tribunal of The Hague his own tender offspring,—the case of his own differences

with Japan. Can it be true, as the malicious whisper, that Russia, by promoting such a conference of the powers, tried to cloak her own plans of conquest in the far East? And why was not the quarrel of England with the Transvaal submitted to the tribunal of The Hague? He proceeds to show that the futility of such a tribunal of arbitration as that of The Hague is absolutely the result of its own constitution, for in the second article is found the following provision :

Controversies of a judicial character, or relating to treaties existing between two parties, and which cannot be adjusted by the ordinary method of diplomacy, shall be submitted to a permanent court of arbitration established by the convention of the twenty-ninth July, 1899, provided they do not relate to the vital interests, to the independence or honor of the two contracting states and have no reference to the interests of any third power.

WHO IS TO JUDGE WHAT SHALL BE ARBITRATED?

But who is to judge, he asks, "whether or not a controversy really touches upon one or the other of the points mentioned? What superior authority is there that can compel the contestants to take this or that course? And then the words 'vital interest, independence and honor of the contracting parties.' Let us consider these. England, for example, may consider it her vital interest that France should not touch her Egyptian possessions; as France might think it vital to her that England should not disturb her in her Algerian and Tunisian possessions, and Italy that no one should make a descent upon Tripolitania. And what of honor? Is there anything more imponderable than international honor? Any state, for instance, may think her honor is threatened because another state does not feel itself compelled to accept an ultimatum oppressive in its conditions from an antagonist." He decides, therefore, that "the whole labored edifice of universal and perpetual peace stands exposed to the tempest of a thousand political accidents which may demolish it miserably and bring it to naught. It is the biblical image of Nebuchadnezzar, whose feet were of clay." He concludes as follows :

"We gladly concede that tribunals of arbitration may be of great use in adjusting disputes between states who can have no grave differences, as between Italy and France and between Italy and England, while between England and France the case would not be quite the same. We gladly concede that these conventions are, in general, evidence of a decided tendency toward peace, a tendency all the more to be appreciated because manifested in those who are themselves the arbiters of peace and war. When this tendency

becomes permanent and universal, arbitration, so far as such a thing is possible, will do good service in the cause of peace; and if it fail utterly to abolish war,—and it is our firm conviction that it will fail to do so,—it will at least deepen the horror with which men regard such actions as are not justified by the unavoidable necessity of international justice."

WHEAT-GROWING IN CANADA.

WHO can estimate with any approach to accuracy the potential wheat-growing area of the Canadian provinces and territories? Counting acres by millions is a task that soon wearies the mind, and it is almost impossible to grasp the full meaning of the figures. In the *Canadian Magazine* for April, Dr. William Saunders gives an estimate of the amount of land fit for cultivation in the province of Manitoba and the territories of Assiniboia, Saskatchewan, and Alberta, as gathered from official sources, as follows :

	Total area exclusive of water. Acres.	Estimated pro- portion suitable for cultivation. Acres.
Manitoba.....	41,000,000	27,000,000
Assiniboia.....	57,000,000	50,000,000
Saskatchewan.....	70,000,000	52,000,000
Alberta.....	64,000,000	42,000,000
Total.....	232,000,000	171,000,000

CEREALS IN ARCTIC LATITUDES.

But this total of 171,000,000 acres by no means represents all the land that Canadians hope to bring eventually under cultivation. Beyond the boundaries of Saskatchewan and Alberta are the vast northern territories of Athabasca and Mackenzie, the former comprising 155,000,000 acres, and the latter 340,000,000. Not much is known as to the possibilities of these arctic lands beyond the fact that cereals may be grown successfully in certain portions of them. Dr. Saunders states that he has received from Dunvegan, on the Peace River, 414 miles by latitude north of Winnipeg, samples of Ladoga wheat, plump and well matured, weighing 64 pounds to the bushel. From Fort Simpson, 818 miles north of Winnipeg, Ladoga wheat weighing 62½ pounds to the bushel has been obtained. The time between sowing and harvesting, in those northern regions, varied from 101 to 108 days in duration. In regard to the ripening of the grain in so brief a period, Dr. Saunders says :

"The long days are an important factor in bringing about this result, the influence of increased periods of light hastens the ripening of cereals very much. This is supported by facts brought together during a careful series of observations made some years ago by a distinguished Russian investigator, Kowalewski. He experimented with spring wheat and oats, growing them in different parts of Russia, from the far North, at Arkangelsk, to the southern province of Kherson. He found that in the higher latitudes the grain ripens in a shorter period than in the more southern districts, the difference varying at different points from twelve to thirty-five days. This author attributes the earlier ripening in the north largely to the influence of light during the long summer days. He also believes that the short seasons of quick growth have gradually brought about in these cereals an early ripening habit. In our experience with early ripening cereals, this habit is a permanent characteristic which they continue to manifest when grown in localities where the summer season is longer."

THE PRESENT CULTIVATED AREA.

Turning from the far North to the small and better-known districts lying near the railroad lines, and considering present conditions, Dr. Saunders shows that, of the 171,000,000 acres in Manitoba and the three provisional territories, which are said to be suitable for cultivation, a very small part is now under crop.

"In Manitoba, there were 2,039,940 acres under wheat in 1902, and 1,134,385 acres in other farm crops, making a total of 3,174,325 acres. In the three provisional territories, there were in all 625,758 acres in wheat, and about 363,879 acres in other crops, making a total of 989,637 acres, which, added to the acreage under cultivation in Manitoba, makes in all 4,163,962 acres. From this comparatively small area over sixty-seven million bushels of wheat and nearly fifty-nine million bushels of other grain were produced. The estimates for 1903 show a considerable increase in area under cultivation, but will not probably bring the land under crop up to five million acres in all, and at this figure it would be less than 3 per cent. of the whole."

COMPARED WITH THE UNITED STATES.

By way of comparison, Dr. Saunders refers to the fact that the total area under wheat in the United States in 1902, including winter and spring varieties, was 46,202,424 acres, which gave a crop of a little over 670,000,000 bushels. He maintains that the yield per acre in Canada is

larger than in the United States. While the average crop in the United States in 1902, including winter and spring wheats, was only 14.5 bushels per acre, the average of spring wheat in Manitoba was 26 bushels, and in the Northwest territories 25 bushels.

"The average of a ten years' record tells much the same story. A ten years' average for Manitoba, from 1891 to 1900, gives 19 bushels of spring wheat per acre. During the same time, South Dakota gives 10.04 and North Dakota 12.07. The wheat yield for the whole of the United States for the same period was 13.3 bushels per acre; while in Ontario, the only province with statistics covering this period, we have an average of 19.4 of fall wheat and 15.2 per acre of spring wheat. This larger yield in Canada is, no doubt, partly due to the land being more productive, and partly to a more favorable climate, and in some measure to better farming."

CANADA AS BRITAIN'S GRANARY.

"The total imports of wheat and flour into Great Britain in 1902 were equivalent in all to about 200,000,000 bushels of wheat. Were one-fourth of the land said to be suitable for cultivation in Manitoba and the three provisional territories under crop with wheat annually, and the average production equal to that of Manitoba for the past ten years, the total crop would be over 812,000,000 bushels. This would be ample to supply the home demand for 30,000,000 of inhabitants and meet the present requirements of Great Britain three times over. This estimate deals only with a portion of the west, and it leaves the large eastern provinces out of consideration altogether. From this it would seem to be quite possible that Canada may be in a position within comparatively few years, after supplying all home demands, to furnish Great Britain with all the wheat and flour she requires and leave a surplus for export to other countries."

THE VICTORIA FALLS.

THE wonderful falls on the Zambesi River, in Africa, discovered nearly fifty years ago by Livingstone, are soon to be reached by the railway now being pushed northward from Bulawayo. An illustrated description of the falls appears in the *Pull Mall Magazine* for March. The falls are in country actually under the rule of the British South Africa Company. Immediately above the falls the Zambesi is, in places, over a mile wide—a peacefully flowing stream, dotted with islands, on which grow tall palms, and there is nothing to disturb the serenity except it be the waterfowl on the lookout for fish,

and an occasional hippopotamus. As to how the river comes to form this gigantic waterfall, Mr. C. Douglas-Jones, the writer of this timely article, gives a clear description :

"A broad river with a comparatively slow current suddenly hurls itself into a narrow crack, or fissure, in the earth which reaches across its bed from bank to bank. This fissure is of an average width of 300 feet and a depth of 400 feet, and has one narrow outlet 600 feet wide, by which the water collected in it can escape, and this nearer to one end than the other. As can easily be imagined, the volume of water collected at the bottom of the fissure is enormous, and having only a small exit, comes rushing and surging out with great force.

"Immediately after leaving the fissure the gorge, into which the water flows, makes a sharp bend. This still more increases the agitation of the water, and the name—'Boiling Pot'—given

"The island juts out over the abyss, and we look along about a thousand yards of cataract hurling themselves into a long and narrow chasm. It is a grand sight. The rainbows here are at their best—double and sometimes treble. The prismatic colors are very distinct, and the clouds of mist seem to chase each other up these arcs of light. Immediately opposite is the Rain Forest, from which down the face of the cliffs numbers of little gleaming, white rivulets are running "

BOGOTÁ THE EXTRAORDINARY.

BOGOTÁ, the capital of Colombia, is one of the most extraordinary cities in the world. Gilbert H. Grosvenor, editor of the *National Geographic Magazine*, who knows the city well, has this to say about it in the *Chautauquan* for March :

"It is situated far from the seacoast, and difficult of access to the world ; it is none the less prosperous, and growing rapidly. It is 800 miles from the Atlantic, and only 250 miles from the Pacific, but is really much nearer the Atlantic, as the lofty Andes shut it from the great ocean. To reach Bogotá, you must take a paddle-wheel steamer up the Magdalena from Barranquilla. . . . The land journey, on mule-back, brings you over the mountains. The road is often so narrow that pack-mules cannot pass each other. On ascending from the third valley, the road enters a broad plain. . . . At the farther end is Bogotá, lying at the foot of more great mountains. A railway carries the traveler across the plain to the city ; and he is lucky if he has made the trip from the seacoast in fourteen days.

"On the streets of Bogotá is seen a strange mixture of modern and medieval customs. One meets a group of gentlemen dressed in the latest Parisian cut of clothes and hat, while down the street come swinging a couple of men carrying a sedan chair with curtains tightly drawn, as was the mode centuries ago. As in Naples and Constantinople, beggars have the free run of the city and plant themselves in the most crowded streets, uncovering hideous deformities or rotting limbs which all passers-by must see.

"The women, especially the girls, are beautiful and vivacious, with large dark eyes and hair, and exceeding grace of movement. Few women are seen on the street. Girls marry at fourteen or younger ; and among the lower classes, sometimes become mothers at twelve or thirteen. Boys are men at fourteen ; at sixteen or seventeen, they graduate from college, are politicians at twenty, and sometimes grandfathers at thirty ; marvelous precocity, explained

VICTORIA FALLS, ON THE ZAMBESI

to this bend is most expressive. At the Boiling Pot the river begins a tortuous course of some thirty miles between cliffs 400 feet high."

"Only in two places, so far as is known at present, can these cliffs be descended to the level of the water. Across the falls nature has drawn a band of color—the rainbow—one of the most beautiful features of the Victoria Falls. "At every turn the sun on the mist causes it to become full of prismatic color, now as a rainbow, now as a variegated, colored cloud, but always of surpassing beauty."

Quite near the falls is Livingstone Island, where Livingstone camped for some months when he discovered the falls, and the tree on which he cut his initials still stands.

The grandest view of the falls, says the writer, is looking east toward northwestern Rhodesia.

by the perpetual spring, but followed by premature decay.

THE ATHENS OF SOUTH AMERICA.

"Bogotá has often been called the Athens of South America. The National University is located here; there is a library of fifty thousand volumes, a picture gallery, a splendid museum, a mint, and an observatory. Pictures of Murillo and Velasquez may be seen in several of the churches and convents.

"The San Francisco and San Augustin rivers divide the city into four parts, and are spanned by many bridges, some of them of quaint design and beauty. The streets are narrow and abominably paved. The houses have large balconies, and projecting windows behind which the ladies watch what is going on; however, the streets are strangely quiet, except during feast days.

"There are many other remarkable things about Bogotá; its situation 8,760 feet above sea-level, on an extremely fertile level plateau as large as the State of Delaware; here it is always spring; you see a farmer planting one field, while his neighbor is reaping his crop; there are no blacks, mulattoes, or persons of negro descent; all are whites, Indians, or of mixed bloods. For its size, the city has more churches and convents,—great, massive structures,—than perhaps any other city in the world. The lofty mountains which tower on all sides contain boundless mineral wealth, and when the revolutions cease and these deposits are mined, Bogotá will become fabulously rich."

THE FUTURE OF THE LATIN NATIONS.

TO the Anglo-Saxon reader in general, this title suggests a consideration of national decadence. To Dr. Emil Reich (who discusses the subject in the *March Contemporary*), it is a study of bright possibilities and probabilities by no means discouraging. In the first place, he declares that the resemblance between the Latin races is entirely superficial. "In national character, there can be nothing more opposed than are the Italians, Spanish, and French."

SPAIN'S FUTURE.

Spain's greatness, Dr. Reich contends, was fostered by peculiarly artificial means (meaning the discovery of the Americas and the wealth this gave her), and "when those means were cut off she was bound to relapse into her former line of progress." The exhaustion of her means has "compelled Spain to curtail her exaggerated projects, but it would be rash to conclude that

she is really a decadent nation." Her late humiliation at the hands of the United States has drawn upon Spain what this writer calls an undue share of contempt. She is naturally poor, she is isolated from the rest of Europe by the Pyrenees, she is the least-visited country of the Continent, she is priest-ridden, but there is no reason to despair of her future.

"Bodily and mentally, the Spanish are as sane and sound as any, and though they may perhaps never be permitted to regain the proud station which once they held in the forefront of Europe, they may very well attain a humbler degree of ambition, develop their own home country, and build up a polity as remarkable as any which at present exists."

THE GREATNESS OF ITALY.

The Italians are, "beyond a doubt, the most gifted nation in Europe." What characterizes them, above all, is their initiative.

"It is the first step which is the hardest to make, but it is the Italians who have always been ready to take the first step in action, and able to make the first step in new paths of science. When once the route across the Atlantic was shown by a Columbus or a Vespucci, it required no remarkable courage or enterprise to follow in their track. But imagine the cool nerves necessary, in those days of yet imperfect seamanship. . . . In all modern sciences, the Italians have played the part of pioneers. It is they who have laid us our true course in navigating the sea of medieval ignorance and have taken up the pursuit of knowledge where the Greeks or Arabs had left it. They have laid the foundations of arithmetic and algebra, of physics, electricity, pathological anatomy (the creation of Morgagni); they have traced the first lines in sociology and in the philosophy of history. . . . We cannot help being impressed by their extraordinary mental activity, and by the diversity of their attainments, which is almost incredible. The history of Italy teems, for the last eight centuries, with the most intense personalities."

This individuality is fostered by the diversity of the country, and her "trump-card in the future is her supremely excellent geo-political position." The Suez Canal has made her the center of the regenerated Mediterranean world. But she faces two great evils,—political separateness and the hostility of the Church. Political union she has attained, but national unity is still to come. While the House of Savoy has stripped the Holy See of its temporal dominions, Italy is still almost exclusively Catholic, and "the Church has at its beck and call an immense power of latent hostility to the existing government. This

is the one great shadow which is cast upon the otherwise brilliant future of Italy."

BRIGHT PROSPECTS FOR FRANCE.

Dr. Reich succumbs to the fascination of France without a murmur of protest. French history and life, he declares, show the pulse of human life as does no other people or history. What is the reason for this? Is it the French character, the French language, the French woman, or France itself? His answer is, all of these. The almost universal knowledge of the French language, he says, is strangely accompanied by an equally widespread ignorance of France. This ignorance, or, rather, misinterpretation, he believes, is to be expected regarding a nation so highly civilized as France, "in which, probably, the scale of lights and shades is wider than anywhere else." A study of France may be best made by a study of the French woman, "the most important person in the French social economy." "Outside the Orient, the French girl is the most secluded of any. To those who have not seen it, the almost penitential isolation in which the French girl up to the time of her marriage is kept from the other sex, except from the members of her immediate family, is very nearly inconceivable." This seclusion is the cause, largely, of two cardinal defects of France, the one literary, the other social. French poetry is sterile in lyrics, because the fountain of inspiration to lyric verse—the social intercourse of the young—is lacking. The novelist of France cannot admit the *jeune fille* to his writings.

"In life, she is a nonentity; in the novel, she would be an absurdity. There is no subject of interest on which to build a romance except the illicit amour after marriage. The novelist is compelled, in spite of himself, to treat life invariably from the point of view of adultery. By no other means can he give his book even a semblance of plausibility. The foreign novel-reader, however, leaps at once to the conclusion that his French author depicts the prevalent features of French married life. Nothing could certainly be more absurdly untrue, as a few months' sojourn in France would certainly convince the most rabid of Francophobes. The future of the French novel is not bright; these limitations which are imposed upon its topic doom it to monotony."

The social result of the seclusion of the French girl is the *demi-monde*.

"The strict seclusion in which the French girl is held before marriage, although on the one hand it is the prime cause of the virtue, the energy, and restless industry of the married Frenchwo-

man, yet on the other hand it is undeniable that it is the indirect prime cause of many of the objectionable social habits of French young men and their *déclassées* mates." But this severe discipline makes a woman whose influence thoroughly pervades every detail of family life.

FRANCE THOROUGHLY DE-MEDIEVALIZED.

Far from being nervous and fidgety by temperament, the French, declares this writer, carry cold logic and reason further than any other people. The Frenchman saves and becomes rich, and is not ashamed to be a shopkeeper all his life.

"Here we have struck the keynote of French private life. No country of Europe has been so thoroughly de-medievalized as France. The barriers of class and caste have been leveled to the uttermost; and though these barriers still subsist, as they must, there is nothing in them that is galling or preventive of a thoroughly good understanding through all ranks of society. There is no straining of one class to enter another, and consequently very little of that sense of discomfort which arises from false position. Very few men in France find it desirable to conceal their social origin. They are fully conscious of the position in life they have been born in, and are well pleased with it."

Chastened and taught by the terrible defeat of 1870, homogeneous in her population, with the republic well established, a rich colonial empire, and a rapidly clearing atmosphere in the relations of Church and State, France has a splendid hold on the future.

MODERN MEXICAN LITERATURE.

THOUGH not generally recognized, it is a fact that, long before its conquest by the Spaniards, Mexico was the literary and intellectual center of the North American continent. This makes rather appropriate that other fact that the first printing-press was set up in Mexico City before the Pilgrim Fathers were born. John Hubert Cornyn, writing in *Modern Mexico* (New York and Mexico City), declares that "the many archeological discoveries made recently in this city [Mexico] show that the claims for intellectuality of the Aztecs made by the early writers after the Spanish conquest of Mexico were not exaggerated." Besides being ardent politicians, the Aztecs, he continues, had an undoubted literary and scientific culture. These predominant characteristics are evident in the modern Mexican, who is, after all, quite near to his Aztec ancestor. Mr. Cornyn says:

LOVE FOR HISTORY AND POLITICS.

"We are not surprised, on looking over the list of the foremost writers of this country, to find that their attention has been directed, for the most part, to politics, science, art criticism, medicine, history, archeology, and kindred subjects. Within this restricted field, the Mexicans have, since before the conquest to the present day, been a literary race, and throughout all this time the literary type has been persistent, in so far, at least, as the native race has helped to make it. This type is strongly in the ascendancy in Mexico to-day, for, like their Aztec ancestors, the Mexican writers show a strong love for history and politics and all those subjects that are more or less related to them. Among the Mexican writers since the Spanish conquest, there has been no lack of poets. But this, too, may be said to be an Aztec inheritance, the mantle of which has descended upon the shoulders of the illiterate Mexican Indians of to-day, in whose mouths the legends and stories of the people are often strikingly beautiful, imaginative, and poetical."

Despite the fanaticism of the Spanish conquerors in destroying most of the Aztec records, after the lapse of four hundred years enough of these records remain to prove beyond a doubt the literary culture of the Aztecs. Under the ancient *régime*, the influence of the priests came first. Then came that of the emperor, who was subject to the Church, and, to some extent, to the nobles.

"Theoretically, he was all-powerful, but superstition brought him to the feet of the priests. The great mass of the people were subject to the three powers—the Church, the emperor, and the nobles. The tendency of the literature created under these conditions was inevitable. . . . In Mexico, under the Aztecs, the lower classes had never conceived the idea that they could exist without the priests, the emperor, and the nobles to rule over them. In all feudal states, the individual exists only as a part of the whole system. Hence, all stories and tales of individuals, wherever they exist, are but the personification of the system itself. Philosophy, history, politics, religion, interest the race as a whole because they are the records of its progress. All the stories of the Aztecs which exist among the Mexican Indians are about heroes and supernatural beings. These represent the progress and ambitions of the people as a whole."

THE MEXICAN NOVELIST OF TO-DAY.

After the conquest, the Catholic Church simply usurped the power of the Aztec priests, re-

placed the Aztec gods with Catholic saints, and the Indians continued to look up to the Church as they had done under the old *régime*. Their individuality remained unawakened.

"To-day, the Mexican novelists who have tried their hand at the picturing of characters and individuals have been, for the most part, imitators, because their surroundings and their education have unfitted them to sympathize with their subjects. No Mexican writer has given us a passably good story of the common people, for the reason that the people have had no existence, until very lately, in the eyes of the political and religious systems which have governed the country. This is why the literary men of Mexico occupy themselves, for the most part, with poetry, history, philosophy, politics, art criticism, science, archeology, and kindred subjects; for these appeal to the people as a body or to the ruling classes as representing the system."

The present liberal government of Mexico is doing its best to encourage literary effort. Most of the literary men who have shown any talent have been given positions under the government, where they have considerable time to devote to literary work. The result of this policy of the government is that most of the Mexican literary men are also politicians, journalists, essayists, etc. Juan de Dios Peza, the foremost living Mexican poet, is an active politician, and inclines to the study of history, criticism, and political science subjects.

THE EVOLUTION OF JAPANESE LITERATURE.

MOST remarkable in the history of national literatures has been the evolution of the written art of Japan since the restoration, in 1867. The Japanese writer, Yone Noguchi, writes for the *Critic* a short summary of this evolution, which is substantially as follows:

"Seiyo Jizo" ("Affairs of Western Countries"), by Fukuzawa, the greatest educator of Japan, and Nakamura's translation of Smiles' "Self-Help," or Mill's "Liberty," were the harbingers of the modern literature. Nansui Sudo appeared with his "Ladies of New Style" in 1887. The book was a sheer absurdity. It was a wild exposition of Western progress. It inspired a revolution among Japanese ladyhood. The heroine was in the van of the progressive movement. She taught that labor was sacred. She became a dairymaid. (How new it was if you consider that we didn't use milk in those days!)

THE DEAN OF MODERN JAPANESE LITERATURE.

There is no question that Prof. Yuzo Tsubouchi is the dean of the modern Japanese

literature. He is enriching his reputation yearly. He came out with "Shosetsu Shinzui" ("Spirit of Fiction") in 1886, when he was still a student at the Imperial University. His "Shosei Katagi" ("Types of Students") (1887), was a sweeping triumph. It was an example of a realistic novel with little plot or dramatic incident, but made up of graphic sketches which successfully carried out the Western idea of characterization. He attempted to revolutionize playwriting with his "Makino Kata" in 1897, and the "Kiri Hitoha" in 1898. They failed as acting plays. He denounced the low order of the literary taste of the public and their slowness in accepting the Western idea. He started the *Waseda Bungaku*, a monthly review of literature and life.

He is a tireless promoter of English literature. He is editing the "World's Literature," published by Fuzanbo, ten volumes of which are already out, with "Paradise Lost" as its first number.

THE JAPANESE ZOLA.

Taketaro Yamada was his rival for a few years since 1887. His "Natsu Kodachi" ("Summer Forest") met a flattering reception. It is a series of short stories, a Japanese version of the story of "Appius and Virginia" being among them. His magazine, *Miyakono Hana* ("Flowers of the Metropolis"), which has now been dead some thirteen years, was a literary event. He promulgated his own method of conception and school of style. Book after book by him was successful. He is regarded to-day as the most voluminous writer, and also the greatest. His last great publication was "Tajo Takon" ("Much Passion, Much Enmity"), a study of sentiment. It might be called a clean edition of Émile Zola.

The years between 1891 and 1896 may be rightly called the period of the revival of the Genroku literature. It was in the Genroku era, under the feudalism, two hundred years ago, that the knights, wearing a long sword, doubtless rusty within its sheath, lazily roamed beneath the flowers, and all the civilians drank of prosperity and love. Literature was the life of that time. Now the people are growing a bit tired of the Western adapters, who could not give sufficient promise of future achievement. How could they? They themselves will not grasp the real meaning of English literature. The public were looking for some sort of reaction. They began to take up their own kimonos again, leaving the badly fitting trousers behind. Saikaku Ibara—the foremost of the Genroku writers—was suddenly resurrected from the darkness of oblivion.

THE RISE OF THE NOVELIST.

Up to 1895, novel-writing was not looked upon as a respectable profession. The public would not permit it to be called gentleman's work. It was regarded as an unpardonable diversion. Authors have now come to command respect. They couldn't make a living by writing, only, twenty years ago, but to-day they are on the fair road to prosperity, the public demand for literature of any sort having tremendously increased.

The literary newspapers have been growing in power for the last ten years. Soho Tokutomi is the most prominent figure in the field, whose artistic writing, sensible conception, and frequently witty reporting are nothing but the best literature. Minoru Kuga, of the *Nippon* (a newspaper), is not without honor; his rigid style has been a tonic for the younger minds. Now the intellectual Japanese are welcoming the newspapers with a greater respect than they ever showed before, permanently forsaking the feeble speculations of novels. The *Student*, a semi-monthly publication for the study of the English language and literature, issued its Carlyle number last September, and indirectly denounced the present condition of Japan.

Books in English.

The English (or American) book most popular in Japan at present, says this same writer (in the *Bookman*), is Andrew Carnegie's "Empire of Business." The Japanese translation and the original are both sold tremendously. Other modern books which are highly in favor are "Sherlock Holmes," Mark Twain's "Heaven or Hell," "Dora Thorne," "Little Lord Fauntleroy," "King Solomon's Mines," and "Enoch Arden." The Japanese are also fond of Dickens' "Christmas Carol," Smiles' "Self-Help," Irving's "Sketch Book," Longfellow's "Evangeline," and Gray's "Elegy in a Country Churchyard."

As to Japanese Poetry.

Not only have the Japanese a real poetry, but they are all poets. This is the judgment of a French student of Japan (J. C. Balet), who considers Japanese poetry in an article in *La Revue* (Paris), "While artistic Japan has no more secrets for us," he says, "while military, commercial, and industrial Japan is revealing herself in ever more favorable aspects, literary, and especially poetic, Japan dwells apart, for the most part hidden." M. Balet, however, gives us a glimpse of the natural beauties,—the woods, the waterfalls, and the flowers of Nippon,—as we

may find them reflected in the "sweet, shy, dreamy souls of the Chrysanthemum Land." In no other country, perhaps, he says, "does the man of the lower orders,—the street merchant, the peasant, and the common river boatman,—show such a highly developed poetic feeling" as in Japan. There are only two kinds of verse, he tells us, with feet of seven and five syllables, and since there is no tonic accent, and rhyme is unknown, the poet's mechanism is very simple." Able to feel to the finest all the grace and harmony of a landscape or other scene, these people are, for the most part, wonderfully apt in expressing their sensations in verse, without apparent effort, without work, and in the most natural way in the world. One can scarcely expect the flavor of the original to be preserved in an English rendering of M. Balet's translation from the Japanese, but one of the examples he gives of this curious aptitude at improvisation may be rendered freely as follows: A poor clothing merchant has lost his ten-year-old daughter, and when a friend condoles with him, he says:

"Why should I not smile?
Yes, Kiyo is no longer here,
And why should I weep?
Life is corrupt 'to keep my little one from its touch,
The gods took her."

The Japanese, like all Orientals, have a great deal of reserve, and it is very seldom that a man of the West is permitted to see into the depths of their nature. For this reason, principally, M. Balet believes, we know only the descriptive poetry of the Japanese, Chinese, and the Hindus,—not their lyrics.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF RUSSIAN MUSIC.

ITS extreme youth and its purely national character are the two chief distinguishing marks of Russian music, in the summing up of Alfred Bruneau, the French composer. M. Bruneau was recently sent by the French Government to St. Petersburg to study Russian music and the conditions of present-day Russian musical life. His observations have just been published in a volume, under the title "The Music of Russia and the Musicians of France," extracts from which appear in the *March Musician*.

The popular songs, the melodies of the folklore, according to M. Bruneau, are of greater significance in Russia than anywhere else in the modern world. "Songs of festivity, songs of mourning, songs of work, songs of war, songs of love, songs of sport, harmonized or not, with or without accompaniment, formed in the remotest

times a treasure of inestimable value." This treasure, formerly scattered, has now been collected and arranged in numerous precious books, among which the collections of Rimsky-Korsakoff and Balakirew deserve to be cited as of exceptional interest. "The soul of the Russian, joyous or regretful, heroic or gentle, pulsates in the strange, abrupt rhythm of these songs, in their melodic freedom and musical intervals, which yield to us the wild scent of the Slavic land and race. The grandeur of these songs of the people is quite different from our own folk-songs, beautiful though they are. They possess a quality that is essentially typical. Less intimately expressive, perhaps, than the native music of our country and town, they are more descriptive. They have in them all the poetry of the northern land, of the northern life."

GLINKA'S PRE-EMINENCE.

Michael Glinka was the first to "draw Russian music from obscurity." "A Life for the Czar," the first performance of which, in 1830, is still a legend at St. Petersburg, opened the way for the future course of music. "Glinka filled himself with the inspiration of popular song, and, with astonishing skill, he reproduced all its beautiful tints in the formidable undertaking of giving color to this vast, sonorous fresco. By the aid of a chord, of a simple manipulation of orchestral tone, he instilled a keen Russian perfume into the airs of the most hackneyed Italian cut."

THE "FIVE" COMPOSERS.

To the famous "Five," formerly so much ridiculed, but now so highly honored, is due the present glory of Russian music. These five were César Cui, N. Rimsky-Korsakoff, Alexandre

Glagounow, Modest Moussorgsky, and A. Borodine.—"five composers of good and healthy race, five men born, consequently, to understand, to love, and to aid each other in the common worship of the Beautiful; banding together, not with the secret design of opposing, tearing,

CÉSAR CUI.

killing, and devouring one another, but for the purpose of asserting openly their spiritual brotherhood, their comradeship of intellect;

joining their efforts in sincere and faithful affection, with minds made up to struggle, to suffer, and to vanquish as one man."

THE RUSSIAN MUSICAL CREED.

The creed of these men, now the creed of almost all Russian musicians, was based on "a sort of ardent, uncompromising artistic nationalism."

"The group was absolutely one in its veneration for Richard Wagner, but it was equally determined to borrow none of his theories, to deprive itself absolutely of the use of the *leit-motif* in opera. And it is most remarkable that these five composers who refused so energetically to marry symphonic music to the drama were, as musicians, symphonists through and through. They have given summary proof of it by the masterful construction and rich development of their instrumental works, distinctive qualities which cannot be misunderstood. I truly believe that in renouncing the symphonic style of writing operatic music they have deprived themselves of the strongest, most useful, tool that the music of the present can offer. . . . Because a German was the first, or among the first, to make use of it, there is no reason why it should not be adapted to the genius of the people in France, in Russia, in Italy, or in any country whatever. Still, if the 'Five' and their followers have deceived themselves on this question, they have done so, in my opinion, only by excess of zeal, and by a commendable but somewhat exaggerated desire to emphasize further their ideas."

M. Bruneau considers Borodine's work "exquisite;" Moussorgsky "could never be forgiven for possessing little talent and much genius;" Balakirew is "a magician reigning over the orchestra;" César Cui, a musician, a journalist, a composer, and a dramatic leader in music. In M. Bruneau's opinion, however, the master of the group, and of the entire young school, is N. Rimsky-Korsakoff, whose folk-song collections have been so much praised.

QUALITIES OF THE NEW SCHOOL.

"Uniting a sure knowledge to a burning imagination, master of his idea as of his pen, progressing toward his goal without deviating from the way, this composer, although of a natural

talent which is essentially descriptive, never stops at the superficialities of creatures or of things. No less admirably than we could wish does he translate, at least when he contents himself with employing the orchestra, the hidden sense of the subjects that he chooses. In a word, he 'interprets' subjects, he magnifies them, makes them live. And he sees them, further, always through the atmosphere of his birth-country. The popular melodies of the sparkling 'Spanish Caprice,' of the magical 'Scheherazade,' for example, he harmonizes, develops, and instrumentalizes truly as a Russian, careful to give to his art a frankly national significance. Those qualities which make the new school, as a whole, notable are best exemplified in Rimsky-Korsakoff, its gifted head."

N. RIMSKY-KORSAKOFF.

SIBERIAN LITERATURE AND LIBRARIES.

ALL the chief towns of Siberia have free public libraries, which contain books in all the languages of the world. An account of several of these free libraries is given in the *Book-Lover* for March by L. L. Lodian, who has lived for a number of years in Siberia. It is through the courtesy of this writer that we reproduce the illustrations of the Opera House and the Public Library at Tomsk.

The most commodious public library in Siberia is probably that of Irkutsk. It is in a substantial brick edifice, which it shares with a museum,

THE OPERA HOUSE AT TOMSK.

and contains five thousand volumes in the different languages of Europe. These, says Mr. Lodian, "have come into the library from different sources, a few (precious few!) from government sources, but mainly resulting from the clearing up of dead exiles' effects, when the books they had brought with them were turned over to the library." All the standard authors will be found represented, both Russian and foreign. The librarian speaks English quite well. The real literary and educational town of Siberia, however,

is Tomsk, which has three universities, two libraries, and is, besides, the book and publishing center of Siberia. Its principal bookstore imports all the up-to-date works of Europe. The Public Library of Tomsk contains four thousand volumes, and in its reading-room all the chief Russian periodicals are received,—censored, of course.

The Siberian home is pitifully poor in books. "The muzhik buys the annual Russian 'kalender-almanak,' price fifteen kopecks. It must have

THE PUBLIC LIBRARY AT TOMSK.

an annual sale of about five millions, but contains few advertisements. It is published at Moscow, and circulates throughout the Russian domains. That, and a Bible, and a book of devotion, are all you will see in the homes of the majority. They never subscribe to papers. But in the residences of the middle-class folk you will observe a couple of dozen varied books, a few novels, and two or three periodicals subscribed to. Higher up, among the 'nabobs,' you begin to see about as many books as prevail in the average American artisan's home."

Many of the exiles brought with them their libraries to Siberia, but as the literary atmosphere is not very vigorous, most of the volumes are disposed of at public auction before very long. Most of the novels circulated in Siberia and Russia are in French. In the homes of the exiles, this writer declares he has seen modern books such as the Cassell and Tauchnitz editions, Goldsmith, Lytton, Voltaire, Mayne Reid, and, of course, Shakespeare. Speaking of the public sale of books, he says:

"In every town in Siberia, at the bazaar, or market-place, you may be surprised to find tomes for sale at a few kopecks, and you may marvel who can the purchasers be, in a population of muzhiks '101 per cent.' of whom are illiterate. Well, paper being of more value than literature, the books are sold as waste paper. The folio sizes are soon sold out; but the octavos or 12mos are of too small a size to be used

for wrapping many articles. Some of these ultimately find their way into the local library—if there is one. Such the fate of some of the world's standard literature!"

THE ITALIAN UNIVERSITY QUESTION IN AUSTRIA.

EVER since the Italo-Austrian War of 1859, the status of Italian students in Austrian universities has been a political question, not only of vexatious character to the Dual Monarchy, but of the deepest significance to Italian culture in general. It is a phase of the great language battle in the empire, and the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), in an editorial article, declares that the whole problem is that of reconciling the numerical superiority of the non-Germanic population of Austria with the cultural superiority of the Germans and their struggle to retain their supremacy. Germans constitute 35 per cent. of the entire population. Italians somewhat less than 3 per cent., and Magyars and Slavs (Poles, Bohemians, etc.), the remaining 62 per cent. Many educational institutions have been changed radically to conform with the racial complexion of the dominant people at present, but as yet "only the three nations [Germans, Poles, and Bohemians] numerically the strongest enjoy, in Austria, complete superior education, although the fundamental state law of December 21, 1867, specifically sanctions the right of all the nations of Austria to cultivate their own nationality and idiom, and to enjoy equal opportunities of education."

WHAT IT MEANS TO THE ITALIANS.

The Italian university problem of Austria, continues the *Nuova Antologia*, really began with the year 1866.

"Prior to 1859, Parma and Padua had been the educational centers of the Italian universities in the Austrian monarchy, and until then the youth of Trent and the coast provinces had enjoyed their study and instruction in common with the Venetians, in the two universities which bore a merited fame in all Austria. This remained unchanged in Padua till 1866, but from that date the Italian provinces were deprived of even one university of their own, an incalculable loss to Italian culture and education."

Soon after 1866, the demand for an Italian university at Trieste "began to be more emphatic, until it became one of the chief aspirations of the Italians in Austria, from Trent to the shores of the Adriatic."

"The injury from this state of affairs was frequently pointed out. The young men from

the Italian gymnasia of the monarchy, with an imperfect knowledge of German, had to overcome enormous difficulties in order to learn, in German, the scientific branches taught at the university, a disadvantage not only in relation to their national culture, but also to progress in their studies. . . . The Italians applied Article XIX. of the Austrian Constitution only to primary and secondary instruction, thus rendering more conspicuous the inconsistency of granting to the Italians a part of the instruction in their own language and subsequently compelling them to follow the university courses in a foreign language."

As compared with the other minor nations of Austria, the Italians "have the advantage of a higher culture and an older civilization, which makes them feel more deeply the need of a higher education," and the erection of an Italian university at Trieste was demanded unanimously, and with pertinacity, for almost half a century by the Diets, communities, societies, solemn public councils, by prominent persons of all classes, and, above all, was contended for by the Italian deputation to the imperial government. "The defenders of the movement reminded their adversaries that more than five hundred Italian students were scattered among Austrian universities. They cited, too, the numerous professors in the universities and gymnasia of the monarchy capable of supplying Italian instruction if the university were established at Trieste. . . . Political reasons for raising objection to Trieste as the site of a university were not alluded to, yet they had been made, more or less openly; it was remembered that a legal faculty had been requested, ever since 1846, . . . and it had been agreed to eliminate politics." All arguments, however, failed.

While the question remained unsettled, "the only semblance of university instruction was the establishment of several Italian courses in the juridical faculty of the university at Innsbruck. In 1863, the Tyrolese Diet adopted the *consolati* motion, by which 'to secure for the Italian element the representation it desired at the university of Innsbruck, and to bring into closer relationship Italian and German science.' The government was asked to introduce Italian courses into the legal and medical faculties." Thus arose the "parallel cathedræ" which were

to play such an important rôle in the Italian university question.

The Italians claimed equal rights at Innsbruck, and "until they had obtained their university at Trieste, they refused to renounce these rights, which were surely bilingual. On the other hand, the Germans affirmed the German character of the university, denied the Italians equal rights, and treated them as unwelcome guests." Finally, hostilities broke out when, in 1901, an Italian instructor was about to give his first lesson. "The German students interfered with violent demonstrations, in consequence of which the university was temporarily closed. . . . In 1902, a ministerial ordinance separated the German from the Italian examinations, and the government's intention to satisfy the desires of both parties was declared by preserving the German character of the university of Innsbruck, and providing for the autonomy of superior instruction for the Italians. Disturbances between the students recurred, however, at regular intervals, and became more and more intense and violent, ultimately including all the factors interested,—the town councils of Innsbruck, the suburbs, and the students. "The minister finally declared his intention of founding an Italian faculty of law, which should have its own government in some other city than Innsbruck. Thus, the demands of the Germans were practically satisfied, which made all the more unjust their subsequent conduct."

THE PRESENT STATUS.

"In the government programme laid before the Parliament at Vienna by Dr. Körber, in November last, he called attention to the necessity of developing Austrian university instruction according to the needs of the various nations constituting the monarchy, and two days after the lamentable events at Innsbruck he announced that the government intended to provide an institution for the higher Italian instruction. Following this declaration, the Italian deputation presented a motion urging the speedy removal of the parallel cathedræ of Innsbruck to Trieste, and all the Italian provinces solemnly and unanimously reiterated their old demands, affirming that only the selection of Trieste could guarantee the permanency and character of the new institutions."



THE PERIODICALS REVIEWED.

NOTES ON IMPORTANT ARTICLES IN CURRENT NUMBERS.*

THE GREAT SIBERIAN RAILWAY.

FEW Americans, in reading the newspaper dispatches from the far East, which constantly refer to the Trans-Siberian Railway, have any conception of the length of that line. In the April *Century*, Mr. James W. Davidson, our consul at Antung, Manchuria, gives many interesting facts regarding the road and its equipment. It was expected that during the coming summer, if military operations offered no serious bar, a new train *de luxe* would be run through from Paris to Port Arthur, a distance of 7,299 miles, 6,600 miles of which is over Russian lines.

The longest continuous railroad line on the American continent is the Canadian Pacific, from Montreal to the Pacific seaboard, a distance of 2,960 miles, less than half the distance from Warsaw to Port Arthur. As regards the difficulty of construction, however, it should be remembered that the Siberian and Manchurian lines cross no great mountain ranges. On the other hand, great swamps had to be drained, and much of the country through which the line was run had never been traversed by a white man. The cost of the Siberian section of the road reached about \$500,000,000, and that of the Manchurian line, \$125,000,000, and it is believed that the preparations for war will add a considerable sum to that figure. Contrary to a prevailing belief in this country, Mr. Davidson assures us that the construction of the line is one of the greatest and most creditable works of modern times.

The passenger service, provided by the Russian Government, now consists of the Siberian express, running twice weekly, consuming fourteen and one-half days between Moscow and Dalny. The daily post train requires some twenty-eight days for the journey. The fare is \$138 first class, and \$92 second, including sleeper, for the trip between the South Manchurian terminal—Dalny—and St. Petersburg. It is expected that the fare on the projected train *de luxe*, consisting of first-class cars only, will not exceed \$280, including the cost of sleeper, food, and incidental expenses.

CHEERFUL PERSEVERANCE OF THE RUSSIANS.

First among the characteristics of the Russian, says Gen. Francis V. Greene, writing on "The Genius of Russia," in the *World's Work* for April, may be mentioned "a dogged perseverance, which laughs at obstacles, makes nothing of terrible hardships and privations, and pursues with never-failing effort and without discussion an object once clearly defined. In the private soldier, this perseverance takes the form of fording rivers filled with floating ice, of carrying on a winter campaign across mountains and through deep snows, without blankets or tents, of crossing the deserts of central Asia under a scorching sun, without water,—and all this cheerfully, joyously, without grumbling or discontent. In the great statesmen, this quality is shown by a con-

tinuity of purpose, from generation to generation of successive ministers, always working toward the same point, and sacrificing their time, their health, their wealth, and often their reputation, in the pursuit of the ideals which have come down from Peter's time."

RUSSIA BEGS THE QUESTION.

The position of Russia in far-eastern Asia is put thus by D. W. Stevens, counselor of the Japanese legation at Washington, in *Leslie's Monthly Magazine* for April:

"Russia has constructed railways through fertile regions hitherto inaccessible; built fine towns, mills, and factories where before nothing of the kind existed, and established orderly government where formerly misrule prevailed. In doing these things, she has made enormous expenditures, thereby creating important interests which she has now a valid right to protect. Considering the methods by which Russia gained a hold on Manchuria and the means she has taken to strengthen and perpetuate it, considering also the ulterior object her actions have plainly shown she has all the time had in view, this argument, let me say with all due respect, puts the cart before the horse. It is the same as if, having obtained your permission to erect a building on your land for our joint use and benefit, and having built a far more elaborate structure than was originally planned, I claimed exclusive ownership and control, not only of the building and the land on which it stood, but also of your adjoining property, because I had spent a great deal of money in the enterprise and had succeeded in constructing a very fine building indeed. The justice of such a claim, as between individuals, could hardly be admitted, and yet it differs in no degree in principle from the claim set up on Russia's behalf in the extension of railway enterprises in Manchuria."

THE CASE AGAINST JAPAN.

After a tribute to the civilizing influence of Russia in Asia, Capt. Edwin W. Dayton, in the *World's Work* for April, indicts the Japanese for "cruelty, selfishness, and lust for conquest." He says: "There has never yet been a single act of aggression on the part of Russia against any scrap of territory to which Japan could make any claim whatever. But Japan is determined to rule the mainland. It has not been Japan that has been threatened, but rather Japanese plans of imperial conquest. Japan is unwilling to see commerce and civilization win what she had hoped to seize as the easy spoil of battle. . . .

"The strain of Malay blood in the Japanese will not permit them to enter into harmonious relations with the Mongolian peoples of the great continent. After the China war, Japan might easily have developed paramount interests in Korea, but instead chose to attempt a *coup d'état* by kidnapping the king and queen and seizing the government. The king and crown prince escaped, and Japan stood again convicted—the unscrupulous marauder.

"In sharp contrast to the great improvement in every department of life in Manchuria, we see in Korea everywhere the evil influence of Japan,—the finances demor-

* The titles of the principal articles appearing in the American magazines for April, and in the British and other foreign reviews for March, are listed on pages 505-06.

alized by tons of counterfeit money shipped from Japan, and the Japanese shops in Korean towns crowded with spurious imitations of English and American goods. The Japanese, inflamed with the idea that they are to be the conquerors of the world, are insolent as well as dishonest. No other foreigner in Korea is so heartily detested by the native as the Japanese; his influence has been utterly bad wherever it has touched Korean life, either public or private."

THE CHINESE AT THE ST. LOUIS FAIR.

The first world's fair in which China will have official representation will be the St. Louis Exposition, at the opening of which a prince of the royal blood will be present. The imperial vice-commissioner to the exposition, Mr. Wong Kai Kah, complains, in the *North American Review* for March, of the Treasury Department rulings compelling the Chinese who come here to participate in the fair to comply with discriminating conditions not imposed on the citizens of other nations. For instance, such Chinese participants must be photographed, must give a bond that they will leave the country after the closing of the fair, must submit to the physical examination required by the Bertillon system of identification,—a procedure commonly followed in the case of criminals only,—and will not be permitted to leave the exposition grounds for a longer period than forty-eight hours. This latter regulation seems to have specially aroused the indignation of Vice-Commissioner Wong Kai Kah.

"There is no reason, excuse, accident, or even hearing, allowed. A person acting in good faith may be physically unable to turn in his card within forty-eight hours; but his bond of \$500 shall be forfeited, and he shall be deported.

"Does this appeal to the average business man as the treatment which should be accorded to a fellow-man whom Americans have invited to coöperate with them in making an American undertaking a success?

"The publication of these rulings in the Chinese press led to indignation meetings of the merchants, and the determination of many to give up their contemplated exhibitions; and I fear the participation of Chinese merchants in the fair will not be as generous as it would otherwise have been.

"For commercial reasons, it would have been to the interest of the United States never to have extended an invitation to the merchants of China, and not to have gone so far as to send an able representative there to awaken interest in the fair. If conditions were to be prescribed for the Chinese different to those applicable to all other nations, it would have been wiser to state what those conditions were to be, so that the American representative could have made the invitation a conditional one, and not a general hearty welcome, such as our merchants believed it to be."

AMERICAN TRADE IN THE WAR ZONE.

Russia is our competitor, Japan simply a customer or fellow-merchant in the war zone, is the way the commercial aspect is sketched in the *World's Work* for April by O. P. Austin, chief of the Bureau of Statistics of the Department of Commerce and Labor. The facts, he says, are extremely suggestive.

"One of our largest exports to countries in the war zone is kerosene. What country is our chief rival in kerosene-production? Russia. Flour is also becoming important. What country is our chief rival in wheat

and flour production? Russia. Lumber comes next. What country has, next to the United States, the world's largest timber-supply? Russia. Russia not only manufactures cotton goods, but now pays an export bounty on cotton goods manufactured in Russia for export. Russia also is a great producer of provisions, and is already sending butter in large quantities over the Trans-Siberian Railroad, as well as by her subsidized steamship routes to the Orient. In other words, Russia is a natural producer of nearly all of the articles which form the bulk of our exports to the Orient, and naturally would be an active and vigorous rival in the contest for that market, while Japan's productions are entirely different in character from those of the United States, and in no way competitive."

POSTAL-PARCELS DELIVERY AT ONE CENT A POUND.

In the *Cosmopolitan* for April, the editor, Mr. John Brisben Walker, continues his argument for a parcel post which was begun in the February number. In behalf of the proposed postal delivery of parcels at the rate of one cent a pound, Mr. Walker makes the claim, not only that the Government is in a position to render this service in a manner satisfactory to the general public, but that the one-cent-a-pound postal rate can be made to produce a handsome profit, instead of the loss now generally predicted by the post-office officials. While the Government now maintains a costly organization equipped to handle merchant parcels, as a matter of fact it secures but one-five-thousandth part of the business, because of its excessive rates. Even if the parcels delivery had to be operated at a slight loss, the Government might well undertake it, says Mr. Walker, "because the saving to the merchants,—especially the country stores,—to the manufacturers, to the farmers, and to the people generally, would be from \$200,000,000 to \$400,000,000 per annum,—to say nothing of the public convenience."

THE DISEASES OF METALS.

In *Harper's Monthly* for April, Prof. E. Heyn writes on "Life and Diseases of Metals." In order to show under what difficulties the engineer of the present day is laboring in attempting to effect a radical cure of the ills that the useful metals are heirs to, this writer cites several examples of such diseases. "Many metals show symptoms of poisoning, rendering them unfit for use. Thus, steel can, by means of small quantities of hydrogen and under certain circumstances, be very seriously affected. Let us take two steel bars of the same material, both heated to a red heat, one surrounded by air, the other exposed to the influences of hydrogen or hydrogen gas, chilling both bars in water after heating; we shall find the bar heated in hydrogen to be brittle, whereas the other bar, heated in air, will turn out to be far superior. The hydrogen has in this instance acted like poison upon the heated steel, and very small quantities of such poisonous matter will suffice to produce very violent effects.

"The disease in question can be radically cured, it only being necessary to anneal the poisoned bar, repeating the process by heating exposed to air. The poisoned steel, by being allowed to lie for a long time, will, without any further expert treatment, show signs of improvement to a certain degree, the poison gradually leaving it. A better treatment still is boiling in water or oil, which process may be compared to using warm compresses in the case of human beings.

"Metals can become diseased from improper treat-

ment, as, for instance, copper and steel when exposed a certain length of time to temperatures exceeding fixed limits. The copper in consequence loses a great part of its ductility and bending qualities. In steel, the disease can become so virulent that a steel bar so infected can, on falling on the ground, break to pieces. The technical expert calls such disease 'overheating.'

THE PONY EXPRESS.

Until the spring of 1861, the fastest overland mail took twenty-one days from St. Joe, Mo., to Sacramento, Cal. Then it was that the famous "pony express" was started by Senator Guerin, of California. Failing to secure government support, he did enlist the assistance of a firm of government contractors, and the "express" came to be. In *Outing* for April there is an illustrated article recounting the development of the scheme. The writer says:

"The task was enormous. It involved, at the outset, the building of two hundred stations in an uninhabited country, the employment of as many keepers, the selection of eighty expert riders, and the purchase of four hundred ponies. The route, which was necessarily a tortuous one, extended from St. Joseph, Mo., northwesterly through Colorado, into Wyoming, to Salt City, the half-way station between the Missouri and the Pacific. From here the trail lay westward across the Utah Desert, over the snow-capped Sierras to California and Sacramento.

"This long journey, covering over half the width of the continent, was divided into sections of seventy or a hundred miles. Each rider was assigned to a section, which included several relays of ponies. . . . The riders carried revolvers and hunting-knives, and sometimes rifles. They got one hundred and twenty dollars per month,—and they earned it. The ponies under them were California cayuses, fourteen and one-half hands high, weighing under nine hundred pounds. They were sound, fleet, hard-stomached, and full of energy. The men wore no regular uniform, preferring the slouch hat, buckskin shirt, and high boots of the story-book cowboys. They were not lovely men, but they were brave ones. This was the pledge they signed:

"I ——— do hereby swear, before the Great and Living God, that during my engagement, and while I am in the employ of Russell, Majors, and Waddell, I will, under no circumstances, use profane language; that I will drink no intoxicating liquors; that I will not quarrel or fight with any other employee of the firm, and that in every respect I will conduct myself honestly, be faithful to my duties, and so direct all my acts as to win the confidence of my employers. So help me God."

"The arrangements were all made, and the riders were ready to mount by noon of April 3, 1860. The people of Sacramento rang bells and fired a salute as Harry Roff galloped away with the precious mail. . . . The first express took ten days,—eleven off the record at the first clip! Later on, weekly and semi-weekly trips of eight and nine days rendered a service almost equal to that of the earlier trains. The Pony Mail that carried President Lincoln's first inaugural address took just seven days and seventeen hours. . . .

"But the life of the post riders was a hard one. They were men used to the conflict with the Indians and hardened to the struggle with the storm. So long as they came out alive, they did not mind a little thing like seventeen bullets through their clothing and three

in their hide, which was the unhappy experience of one of their number. Often, however, they did not come out alive, and the arriving carrier found no one to take up his burden. . . . The longest ride on record was made by Buffalo Bill Cody, then only fifteen years old, who covered, in this way, over the routes of his dead companions, a distance of three hundred and twenty-two miles."

THE FUR COMPANIES IN THE NORTHWEST.

The half-forgotten rivalries of the Northwestern fur-trading companies in the early years of the nineteenth century are recalled in an interesting article contributed by Miss Agnes C. Laut to the *April Century*. The era of excitement and open warfare that followed the purchase of Louisiana by the United States can hardly be appreciated at the present day. In those early years, there were three rivals for the rich spoils of the fur country,—the Northwest Fur Company, which had a chain of forts down the St. Lawrence and across Labrador to the Atlantic, up the Ottawa to the Great Lakes, across the prairie to the mountains, and down the Athabasca and Mackenzie to the Arctic Ocean, with headquarters at Fort William, on the north shore of Lake Superior; John Jacob Astor, the great New York merchant, and a party of St. Louis traders. Astor's capture of the Pacific, and the adventurous movements of the rival companies, are graphically described in Miss Laut's article.

THE HIGHWAY OF CORRUPTION IN AMERICA.

The corruption of American politics, says Lincoln Steffens, in *McClure's* for April, is our American corruption, political, but financial and industrial too. Business, he maintains, is at the bottom of it all. This is his explanation:

"Business started the corruption of politics in Pittsburgh; upholds it in Philadelphia; boomed with it in Chicago and withered with its reform; and in New York, business financed the return of Tammany Hall. Here, then, is our guide out of the labyrinth. Not the political ring, but big business,—that is the crux of the situation. Our political corruption is a system, a regularly established custom of the country, by which our political leaders are hired, by bribery, by the license to loot, and by quiet moral support, to conduct the government of city, State, and nation, not for the common good, but for the special interests of private business. Not the politician, then, not the bribe-taker, but the bribe-giver, the man we are so proud of, our successful business man,—he is the source and the sustenance of our bad government. The captain of industry is the man to catch. His is the trail to follow.

"We have struck that trail before. Whenever we followed the successful politician, his tracks led us into it, but also they led us out of the cities,—from Pittsburgh to the State Legislature at Harrisburg; from Philadelphia, through Pennsylvania, to the National Legislature at Washington. To go on was to go into State and national politics, and I was after the political corruption of the city ring then. Now I know that these are all one. The trail of the political leader and the trail of the commercial leader are parallels which mark the plain, main road that leads off the dead level of the cities, up through the States into the United States, out of the political ring into the System,—the living System of our actual government. The highway of corruption is the 'road to success.'"

THE TRUSTS THAT MADE THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

Three trusts made the British Empire,—so Hartley Davis reminds us, in an article in the April *Munsey*. These “trusts,” the East India Company, the Hudson Bay Company, and the South Africa Company, made Great Britain a world-state.

“Speaking broadly, two of them made Great Britain the foremost naval and financial power of the globe. They were largely responsible for the desperate wars that devastated Europe during the eighteenth century, and for the great Napoleonic struggle which extended into the nineteenth. Although the real issue was frequently obscured, Britain’s long combat was really for the lands over seas, first with Spain and afterward with France. Coming into the field later than her rivals, she finally outstripped them in the race for empire.

“The third of this trinity of trusts was responsible for the war which marked the close of the nineteenth century,—the conflict in which Great Britain fought for, and won, the control of South Africa. In one respect, the British South Africa Company is the most remarkable of the three. It is unique among the corporations of the world in that its primary purpose was not to increase the private wealth of its stockholders, but to found an empire. It may be said to have succeeded, though at tremendous cost. . . .

“The founders of the original trusts had the same motives as the organizers of the modern ones,—the making of more money; but they wanted the money for itself rather than for the power it gives. Merchants of London, conning their account books in dim and musty offices, grew lean with discontent over the safe and moderate returns of an ordinary, conservative business. Their imaginations were inflamed by tales of treasure to be won in strange and mysterious lands beyond the oceans, and their covetousness made them take gamblers’ chances in the boiling jungles of the tropics, amid the eternal ice of the arctic seas. These tradesmen, seeking only to fill their strong-boxes with gold, became the sovereign rulers of three hundred million people and of six million square miles of territory. The area of the whole continent of North America is but little more than six million square miles, and its population is less than one hundred million souls. The three great chartered companies gained for England practically all her important colonial possessions save Australia.”

THE TROUBLE WITH THE ENGLISH DRAMA.

Writing on “Play-Going in London” for the April *Scribner’s*, Mr. John Corbin criticises London theatrical management on essentially the same grounds that form the basis of so much that is written and spoken in these days anent the degeneracy of the American drama.

“Treading perilously between the devil of the luxurious and the deep sea of the poor, it has fared ill in England with the greatest of arts. Worst of all has it fared with Shakespeare. Never for a moment have his plays, when adequately represented, failed to appeal to the heart of the nation. Even in the long era of false taste introduced with the Restoration, Shakespeare held the boards. And to-day the intelligent Briton, however puritanical, ventures in crowds to the theater to see ‘Hamlet’ or ‘As You Like It’ well performed. But when does one see them well performed? The long period of the Puritan revolution obliterated the true Elizabethan tradition; and since then the classical drama has been the charge, not of a dignified

and permanent institution free from financial worries, as on the Continent, but of actor-managers, each engrossed in the box-office and his own personal success. The producers of Shakespeare have ruthlessly cut down all parts but their own, omitted scenes at will, transposed what were left, and tacked on the ‘happy ending’ so dear to the commercial manager. They have even rewritten plays entire. All this they did for ages without let or hindrance, because the state permitted the traditions of the art, which is its great glory, to go by the board, and the otherwise intelligent public was too ignorant of the drama to know the difference.”

IS FICTION DETERIORATING?

Charlotte Yonge’s title to greatness is that she created a type. This is the way Jane H. Findlater puts it in the *National Review* for March:

“There is a tendency in human nature to run always to one extreme or another; you will find either a very bad or a very good type of hero the favorite of each generation,—there is no place found in public favor for the real man of real life who is neither one thing nor the other. Characters necessarily, before they become types, must be extreme instances of that which they embody. Whether Charlotte Yonge had consciously grasped this fact, we shall never know; sufficient to say that she acted upon it, and in Sir Guy Morville, the hero of the ‘Heir of Redclyffe,’ created a type of the good hero which in popularity outran all competitors. Just as Charlotte Brontë years before had fascinated the world by a wicked hero, and created the ‘Rochester type,’ so Charlotte Yonge made ‘Morvillism’ the fashion of the hour. Half the youth of England were modeling themselves on Sir Guy a few years after the publication of the ‘Heir of Redclyffe.’”

Fiction, Miss Findlater contends, is deteriorating. The modern type of hero is not as noble as that of Miss Yonge.

“If Miss Yonge and her generation avoided the realities of life, our authors of to-day emphasize them in a quite unnecessary manner, and the one picture is fully more untrue than the other. It is not possible to take a charitable view of this development in heroines,—the masterful hero may be regarded as only another manifestation of the ideal, but by no stretch of charity can the courtesan-heroine be viewed in this favorable light. The ‘oldest profession in the world’ certainly furnishes the novelist with many an effective subject; but it seems a pity for the idea to get abroad that every woman is at heart a rake or worse. This, without mincing matters, is just what is being taught us on all sides at present. The return to nature, to ‘reality,’ is being overdone; in this attempt to analyze the primitive instincts of women, many of her most inborn characteristics are entirely ignored,—for, bad as the world is, it would be even worse if faithfulness, purity, and modesty were not unchangeable instincts with the larger proportion of women. We need, then, indeed, a return to nature—to the whole of human nature instead of one side of it—a return, in fact, to some of those simple, undeniable goodnesses which form such a large part of life, and are as truly real as half the primordial instincts we hear so much about just now.”

PROTOZOA AND DISEASE.

Dr. Gary N. Calkins, writing in the April *Century*, gives an interesting summary of the recent discoveries of the protozoan parasites of malaria, smallpox, scarlet

fever, and yellow fever. This writer shows how the widespread opposition to the protozoa theory of disease has been practically overcome in the case of malaria, while with smallpox and yellow fever the battle is now on. The same kind of opposition manifested against the bacteria theory, some years ago, was overcome by the culture methods introduced by Koch. It is more difficult to obtain similar cultures of protozoa, and this fact goes far to explain the failure to cultivate malaria organism or the organism of smallpox by the usual bacteriological methods. One fact pointed out by Dr. Calkins which should help to dispel skepticism with regard to protozoan diseases in human beings is that hundreds of thousands of the lower animals are subject to the diseases caused by the protozoa. Studies of these protozoan parasites may lead to the discovery of some more or less simple means for the prevention or cure of diseases such as scarlet fever, or even cancer.

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

THE MODERN JAPANESE ARTIST.

ACCORDING to the book-reviewer of the *Revue Universelle* (Paris), the keenest book recently published on Japan is the one entitled "Japan," by Félix Régamey (Paris). From the chapter entitled "Artists of Yesterday," he quotes this paragraph: "The Japanese artist works calmly. He questions nature. Without neglecting tradition, he invents, perfects, and innovates constantly. His mind is open to all forms of art and its refinement, but it is especially in decorative work that he is remarkable. In the ornamentation of vases of lacquer and cloth, everything which comes from his hand is living, colored, throbbing, fantastic. He has suppleness and fantasy. His imagination is without parallel in fantastic invention and delicacy in subjects. He has triumphed in the monstrous and in the exquisite. He arrives at the synthesis by patient, sure analysis, this Japanese artist, and he is not satisfied only by successful and logical eliminations, but has been able to discover the dominating feature to get at the characteristic trade."

A RUSSIAN VIEW OF THE MANCHURIAN SITUATION.

In an editorial on the gravity of the situation in the far East, the *Russkoye Ekonomicheskoye Obozreniye* (St. Petersburg), the monthly devoted to commerce and economics, says:

"The Manchurian railroad, with its terminus, Port Arthur, is a source of constant burdensome material sacrifices for the country; but it is, at the same time, the completest attainment of a universal enterprise,—the creation of a road which combines two worlds, two civilizations. In this enterprise all the countries are interested not less than Russia, and, notwithstanding the fact that Russia has expended on this affair immense moral and material means, the participation in it extends itself to all, and it does not make any claims on Manchuria except the necessary guardianship of the line, which is also of general interest. But, after all, our undoubted civilizing mission, which was borne upon our shoulders for the interest of the world, was not met with gratitude, but with ill-wishes and suspicion. . . . But whatever trials we may yet meet with in this war, we may say with confidence that the country will fulfill its duty to

"THE POMPEII OF AMERICA."

The site of ancient Jamestown, in Virginia, has recently been the scene of discoveries that have an important bearing on the proposed celebration of the tercentenary of the founding of that settlement. The foundation walls of the old State House in which Virginia's first law-makers assembled were uncovered last year by Mr. Samuel H. Yonge, who contributes to the *Virginia Magazine of History and Biography*, a quarterly published at Richmond, the first installment of an elaborate and scholarly monograph on "The Site of Old 'James Towne,' 1607-1698." Mr. Yonge has also fixed with approximate accuracy the point where the first settlers landed. All who participate in any way in the approaching celebration will be greatly aided by Mr. Yonge's careful identification of sites, made possible only by the most painstaking researches in ancient land patents and other authoritative documents.

the end, in the recognition of its moral strength and its historical problems."

RELIGIOUS LIFE IN SWEDEN.

Léon Tolstoi, Jr., recently made an extended tour throughout Sweden, and his observations and reminiscences have been published in Moscow, under the title "Swedish Memories." The *Bibliothèque Universelle* (Lausanne) is publishing these reminiscences serially. He compliments the Swedes upon their religious devotion, and declares that they have demonstrated conclusively by their religious life that "nothing succeeds better or gives more peace than tolerance and a keen discernment of right and wrong, good and evil."

SPANISH IN THE BALKANS.

An interesting school has been established in Bucharest for the study of Spanish. The Balkan countries have a great many Spanish Jews in their commercial and educational activities, and Dr. Enrique Bejarano, director of this Hebrew-Spanish school (whose work and portrait are presented in the *Illustracion Española y Americana* (Madrid), is one of the learned men of his race. It is a further interesting and remarkable fact that these Spanish Hebrews remain Spaniards. They refuse to become naturalized citizens of the countries in which they reside. The general subjects of instruction in this school are taught in Roumanian, but the catechism and other religious topics are expounded in Spanish.

IMPORTANT SOCIALIST CONGRESS.

According to the *Revue Socialiste* (Paris), the recent congress of the Austrian Socialist party was "the very incarnation of the idea of internationalism." There were seventy-one German, thirty-six Bohemian, eighteen Polish, two Italian, three Slavonian, and three Ruthenian delegates. The sessions were productive of great good, and "this proletarian parliament in its absolute harmony presents a happy contrast to the constant imbroglio in the Reichsrath."

IRELAND'S RUINED CONDITION.

A writer who signs himself Fermin Roz contributes to the *Revue Bleue* (Paris) an article on the Ireland of the present, in which he says: "Time and war have

made the Ireland of to-day a ruin which keeps a sacred aspect. The untilled soil beneath these ruins has the sadness of a cemetery. It brings back the austere beauty of Thebes. How far we are from the cities of industry and the riches of culture! Solitude spreads itself among the tombs, and all seem to have grown aged, but not changed, for a thousand years. . . . It seems to me, without a doubt, that one can sum up Ireland in one word—Past. . . . Ireland is little more than a cemetery, and her beautiful vegetation merely the flowers which deck a tomb."

SPAIN'S FUTURE.

The Spanish reviews are beginning to publish thoughtful articles on economic and social reform in the kingdom. "There is still much latent vitality in the Spanish people," says M. Hipólito González Rebollar, in *España Moderna* (Madrid), "but intelligent and prudent social legislation, with regard for a national psychology, is necessary to bring about any important change in the national character. Spain needs social reform, but it must be brought about intelligently."

THE KING OF SPAIN GOES TO PORTUGAL.

An illustrated account of the recent visit of the King of Spain to Portugal appears in *Hojas Selectas* (Madrid), the popular Spanish illustrated monthly, in which Spanish-Portuguese relations are presented in detail. The editor (it is an editorial article) believes that the two Iberian nations can maintain their individual independence, but so work together that "the confederation will rehabilitate the race in Europe and bring about helpful relations with the Latin peoples in America. Their interests are mutual, and their glorious past should be an inspiration to future achievement."

HAECKEL'S SEVENTIETH BIRTHDAY.

The celebration of Ernst Haeckel's seventieth birthday calls for a number of tributes from the German reviews and the press generally. *Die Woche* (Berlin) sketches the philosopher's life, and dwells upon his relations with Darwin. The mantle of the great English biologist has fallen on his German fellow-worker. All Germany, says this journal, joins in good wishes for his last years.

THE KANT CENTENARY.

The one-hundredth anniversary of the death of the philosopher, Immanuel Kant, has just been celebrated in Germany. Men the one-hundredth anniversary of whose death the world celebrates, says the *Illustrirte*

Zeitung (Berlin), are not dead as other men are. Kant will never die, although his system of philosophy no longer commands the adherents it once did. But it must be admitted that the Kantian philosophy afforded an excellent point of vantage from which the orientation for the philosophy of our time became possible. Strange as it may seem, Kant "was absolutely under the influence of sentiment in intellectual matters." This is the judgment of Erich Adickes in the *Deutsche Rundschau* (Berlin).

THE FAILURE OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN RUSSIA.

Never once during the nineteenth century, says A. S. W. in the *Obrazovanie* (Moscow), has the secondary school in Russia responded to the needs of Russian society. "Hostile to every manifestation of free and independent spirit, it has oppressed and choked such spirit by every means in its power. . . . Education has not been its aim,—merely the method by which it can the better form reactionaries and contemptible bureaucrats incapable of ideas in general and of critical ideas in particular. The reforms brought about several years ago are absolutely insufficient."

GERMANY FROM A RUSSIAN STANDPOINT.

The Germany of to-day seems to a writer in the *Russkoye Bogatstvo* (St. Petersburg) who signs himself "Rens" like one vast barracks. "The whole nation is nothing more than a great disciplined mass, an immense military machine. The numerous military organizations which gather up the soldiers and the sub-officers of the reserve cultivate in the people the military spirit and the Prussian jingoism. But the very excess of forcing to arms of an entire people has begun to bring about a decided reaction. The novelists whose work spreads through all the social strata have now come to reinforce the Social Democratic party, and the dormant spirits of the nation are awaking."

"DO WE NEED A DRAMATIC BAIREUTH?"

One of the prominent German literary critics asks this question, and Ernst von Wildenbruch answers it in *Die Woche* (Berlin). He admits that a dramatic center corresponding to the musical one which Wagner established at Baireuth would be a source of much inspiration to the German drama, but really, he says, "It will not be through a beautiful theater that German drama will be advanced, but through good, new, artistic dramas themselves."

SCIENCE IN FOREIGN PERIODICALS.

PROGRESS IN THE USE OF ACETYLENE.

A SUMMARY of the progress made in the use of acetylene up to the beginning of the present year appears in *Le Monde Illustré* (Paris). Heretofore, says this journal, there have been misunderstandings on the subject, and ungrounded prejudices against lighting by this gas. Three eminent scientists have contributed to the development of this commercial product,—Davy, who described it in 1836; Berthelot, who made it a chemical in 1862 and gave it its present name, and Bul-lier, who, in 1894, in collaboration with Demoisson, definitely applied it to commercial uses. There is no reason, this journal continues, why its generation should be regarded as dangerous. A few simple principles

must be observed, such as the proper proportion of air in the flame,—that is all.

LIGHTING BY ALCOHOL.

In the *Revue Générale de Chimie* (Paris), Professor Wittelschöfer sets forth the advantages of lighting by alcohol. These advantages, he declares, are twofold. The first (which would be an advantage at certain seasons only) is that alcohol develops less heat. One kilo of alcohol produces 5,500 calories, or heat units; one kilo of petroleum, 10,000. The other advantage is that an alcohol lamp develops less carbonic-acid gas. By the combustion of 100 grams of alcohol, 163 grams of carbonic-acid gas are formed; 100 grams of petroleum in

combustion develops 312 grams of carbonic-acid gas. The petroleum lamp poisons the atmosphere very much more quickly than the alcohol lamp.

PROPERTIES OF RADIUM.

In a summary of our knowledge of the mysterious metal radium up to the present date, made in a lecture by Prof. E. Curie (the discoverer of this metal) before the Royal Institution of London, we are told: "The salts of radium are spontaneously luminous. . . . Their luminosity diminishes with time, without, however, disappearing completely, and, at the same time, the salts originally without color assume the tones gray, yellow, and violet. . . . It would seem, also, that radium is an unstable chemical element, and that helium is one of the products of its disintegration."

DRINK IN FRANCE.

Dr. Jacques Bertillon, the famous chief of the Statistical Bureau of Paris, has written a volume entitled "Alcoholism and the Way to Fight It," as demonstrated by experience, which Victor Lecoqff has just issued as one of the twelve volumes in his "Library of Social Economy." Dr. Bertillon has had exceptional opportunities for studying the question of alcoholism, and treats the subject in a thoroughly scientific manner. Drink, he declares, is likely to prove the ruin of the French race, unless something is done to successfully combat the habit. He does not believe in the efficacy of government monopoly.

IS SALT INJURIOUS TO THE STOMACH?

Further discussion of the benefit or injury of salt in food appears in the *Revue Scientifique* (Paris), being a report of the proceedings of a recent meeting of the Biological Society of France. One of the members, M. Linoasier, has come to the conclusion that while salt in moderation is good for the stomach and often absolutely necessary, it ought to be taken, apart from meals, in much the same way as a medicine. He bases his judgment on the way artificial digestion proceeds in the presence of marine salt.

SANITARY BENEFIT OF ELECTRICITY.

A full report of the Eleventh International Congress of Hygiene, which met in Brussels last September, is published in the *Revue Scientifique* (Paris), in which some interesting information is given concerning the benefit from the use of electricity as a motive power and for lighting in the Belgian capital. According to a paper read at the congress, the introduction of electricity has had great hygienic influence upon the general health, but particularly upon the health of the workmen employed upon the public works, and very especially in the markets of the city. The replacing of the horse-car line by an electric system has been of incalculable benefit to the city.

A HOUSE FOR CONSUMPTIVES.

In *Cassell's Magazine* (London) there is given a description of an interesting experiment in house-building. This experiment is based upon the necessity of the sun to the human constitution, and is calculated to be of extreme value to those threatened with consumption.

"In the south of France may be seen an interesting little structure which has earned the title of the 'Villa Tournesol,' from the fact that the dwelling is always

turned toward the sun. It was erected by a well-known French architect, M. Eugène Petit, at the advice of Dr. Pellegrin, who contends that houses on this plan are ideal residences for those with weak chests or affected lungs. The house is square in shape, and the weight is carefully distributed. It is built upon a steel turntable, which can be revolved by a slight effort. The dwelling shown in our photographs is built of stone, brick, and iron, and is in every sense a well-finished building. Running through the center of the structure to the foundation is an upright rod, with a crossbar forming two handles like the bars of a capstan. By means of this arrangement, two men can turn the table and the house at the same time. There are holes in the platform for the passage of water and sewer pipes, electric wires, etc. Another interesting fact is the entire absence of windows at the sides or back of the house, so that there can be no draughts. All the windows are set back, so that the occupant can sit outside, in the open air and sunshine, without feeling any draught. 'A house of this description,' says Dr. Pellegrin, 'situated in a healthy, sunny climate, is the best possible way of curing consumption and similar diseases.'

RADIUM IN THE BIBLE.

The *Revue Scientifique* (Paris) thinks "the English are sometimes very amusing," because of the following, which it reports as a fact:

In a book published in 1834 (Pinnock's "Guide to Knowledge"), we read: "Moses said that light was created the first day; that the sun and the moon were created only on the third day. Since we had another light than that of the celestial bodies, we must conclude that the light of the first day was of a different character from that of the sun. During the early formative period of our planets, it must have possessed a light in itself, which is the same case with the comets during the analogous phase of their formation." A correspondent of the *Saturday Review* (London) concludes, from this: "With our actual knowledge of the properties of the atomic mass of radium and other elements radiating from the sun, I venture to think that this [the statement in the book aforesaid] is another link in the chain of proofs which establishes the agreement of the first chapter of Genesis with the results of scientific research."

POLAR EXPLORATIONS FROM 1900 TO 1903.

In the *Revue Universelle* there is a brief review of Polar explorations from 1900 to 1903. Special credit is given Peary for the important work he has done in extending our geographical knowledge of Greenland, although he has not reached as northerly points as some others. A most interesting archeological exploration of the east coast of Greenland has been made by the Danish captain, Brunn. This work was preceded by a most thorough geographical survey of the east coast by Lieutenant Amdrup, so that now that region is charted with great exactness. During these years, too, from 1900 to 1903, the sea between Greenland and Scandinavia has been explored by several expeditions, beginning with that of Nansen in 1900. Among other geographical facts, Dr. Norris, in his explorations in the yacht *Walwin* of the canal between the Shetlands and the Faröes, confirmed the discovery by Wyville Thompson of a crest separating these archipelagoes, and showed that it extended to Iceland. It thus marks the southern limit of Scandinavia and the southern limit of the arctic fauna.

CONTENTS OF REVIEWS AND MAGAZINES.

I.—SOME TITLES IN AMERICAN PERIODICALS FOR APRIL.

Atlantic Monthly.—Boston. April.

Christian Science. John W. Churchman.
An American Primer. Walt Whitman.
The Sicilian Highlands. William Sharp.
Moral Overstrain. George W. Alger.
Aristocracy of the Dollar. Thomas Wentworth Higginson.
Some Recent Aspects of Darwinism. E. T. Brewster.
The New American Type. H. D. Sedgwick.

Century Magazine.—New York. April.

The Fights of the Fur Companies. Agnes C. Laut.
Villas Near Rome. Edith Wharton.
The Youth of Washington. S. Weir Mitchell.
Landmarks of Poe in Richmond. Charles Marshall Graves.
Protozoa and Disease. Gary N. Calkins.
The Great Siberian Railway. James W. Davidson.

The Chautauquan.—Chicago. April.

City Life, Crime and Poverty. John R. Commons.
Reading Journey in the Bahamas and the Caribbees. Horace Kidder Fiske.
Sculptures of Note in our Large Cities. Edwina Spencer.
Planting the Flag in Old Louisiana. Archer Butler Hulbert.
Washington: Old and New. Charles Zueblin.
Art Training for Citizenship. Rho Fisk Zueblin.

The Cosmopolitan.—Irvington, N. Y. April.

If Europe Should Go to War. John Brisben Walker.
Pius X. and the Problems of His Pontificate. Altaviva.
At the Court of the Twentieth-Century Mikado. Edwin Wildman.
The Lewis and Clark Centennial. William R. Stewart.
Dramatic History of South America. Cyrus Townsend Brady.
Breakfasts with Horace Greeley. Murat Halstead.
The Keeper of the Eastern Gate. Broughton Brandenburg.

Harper's Monthly Magazine.—New York. April.

Honneur the Sedate. Thomas A. Janvier.
Through Inland Seas. Louise Morgan Still.
Life and Diseases of Metals. E. Heyn.
Reproduction of Plant Life. Ellis A. Apgar.
"To" and the Infinitive. Thomas R. Lounsbury.
The Romance of Citizen Rouzet. Basil King.
The University of Upsala. Charles F. Thwing.

Leslie's Monthly Magazine.—New York. April.

The Chance for the American Singer. Arthur Goodrich.
The Real Discoverer of the Northwest. Agnes C. Laut.
The Case for Japan. D. W. Stevens.

Lippincott's Magazine.—New York. April.

The Woman Question in Utopia. Elizabeth Robins Pennell.
With Mr. W. B. Yeats in the Woods of Coole. Cornelius Weygandt.
Personal Characteristics of Emilio Castelar.

McClure's Magazine.—New York. April.

One Hundred Masterpieces of Painting. John LaFarge.
Enemies of the Republic. Lincoln Steffens.
The Negro: The Southerner's Problem. Thomas Nelson Page.
The History of the Standard Oil Company: Part Two. Ida M. Tarbell.

Munsey's Magazine.—New York. April.

The Destiny of the Far East. Alexander Hume Ford.
The Rise and Fall of Free Trade. C. Arthur Pearson.
Stories of the Saints. James Lawrence Smith.
The Trusts That Made an Empire. Hartley Davis.
The United States Army in 1904. Lieut.-Gen. S. B. M. Young.

Outing.—New York. April.

Highest on Mt. McKinley. Robert Dunn.
Maple-Sugaring in the Northern Woods. Hamilton Percival.
Snapper Fishermen of the Gulf. Henry C. Rowland.
Untraveled Russia. Joseph B. Thomas, Jr.
Rough Riding on the Stage. Blanche Bates.

Scribner's Magazine.—New York. April.

The Architecture of the St. Louis Fair. Montgomery Schuyler.
Play-Going in London. John Corbin.
Mrs. George Bancroft's Letters from England in 1846-49.
The War of 1812. Capt. A. T. Mahan, U.S.N.
Mother Goose Annotated for Schools: An Experiment in Modern Pedagogics. Clara Austin Winslow.

World's Work.—New York. April.

The Genius of Russia. Gen. Francis V. Greene.
Takahira the Man. Isaac F. Marcosson.
The Rise of Modern Japan.
The Cost of War to Russia and Japan. Frank A. Vanderlip.
Our Trade in the War Zone. O. P. Austin.
Rear-Admiral Uriu as an Annapolis Cadet. Charles W. Stewart.
Japan's Naval Training. A Japanese Naval Officer.
The Victory of Our Eastern Diplomacy.
The Danger of War to Europe. Frederick James Gregg.
The Rebound on Russia. Gilson Willets.

II.—ARTICLES IN ENGLISH PERIODICALS FOR MARCH.

Blackwood's Magazine.—London. March.

Viscount Gough. G. W. Forrest.
The Pytchley Country.
Scolopaxiana: Habits and Habitat. Scolopax.
Whitaker Wright Finance.
Musings Without Method. Continued.
The Opening of the War. With Map. Active List.
The Political Outlook.

Contemporary Review.—London. March.

Japan and Russia. Dr. E. J. Dillon.
Have You No Opinion of Your Own? Augustine Birrell.
British Rule in the Transvaal. British Colonist.
Recollections of Renan. Mrs. Emily Crawford.
War Office Reform. Scrutator.
Carlyle and the Present Tense. Vernon Lee.
The Flowing Tide in Politics. Joseph Ackland.
The Future of the Latin Nations. Dr. Emil Reich.
Alcoholic Beverages and Longevity. T. P. Whittaker.
The Greek Conception of Animals. Countess Martinengo Cesaresco.
Free Will and Determinism. Sir Oliver Lodge.
Buddhism in China. W. Gilbert Walshe.

Cornhill Magazine.—London. March.

A Modern New Zealand. Lady Broome.
The Case of Allan Breck. Andrew Lang.
Herbert Spencer. Hector Macpherson.
A Day of My Life in the County Court. Judge Parry.
The Structure of a Coral Reef. Prof. T. G. Bonney.
French Housekeeping. Miss Betham-Edwards.
Ibn Batuta: A Hungry Heart. Hugh Clifford.
The Wreck of the *Wager*. W. J. Fletcher.

Empire Review.—London. March.

The Political and Commercial Situation in Manchuria. H. Fulford Bush.
The Chinaman in Australia. Murray Eyre.
Cancer Research in Australia. Dr. G. Cooke Adams.
The British Silk Industry. Frank Warner.
Artificial Manures and Their Uses in Germany. J. L. Bashford.
Science and Invention. Engineer.
Life in New Zealand: A Day at Baku. R. E. Baughan.

Fortnightly Review.—London. March.

The Czar: A Character Sketch.
The Slav and His Future. Dr. Emil Reich.

The Growing Distaste for the Higher Kinds of Poetry. Alfred Austin.
 The Collected Poems of Christina Rossetti. Ford Madox Hueffer.
 The Neglected Estate of Wei-Hai-Wel. Tai Foo.
 The War and the Powers. Calchao.
 The War in the Far East. Alfred Stead.
 Mr. Chamberlain's Future. A Student of Public Affairs.
 The Fiscal Question: A Bird's-eye View. Sir Charles Follett.
 Entertaining. Mrs. John Lane.
 Greek and the Public Schools. Cloufflesley Brereton.
 The New War Office. Major Arthur Griffiths.
 New Light on the Irish Problem. Filson Young.
 How They Teach Acting at the Paris Conservatoire. L. J.

Monthly Review.—London. March.

Thomas Hardy's "The Dynasts."
 The Reorganization of the War Office. Julian Corbett.
 The Favored Foreigner: A Comparison in Burdens. H. J. Tennant.
 Bushido: The Japanese Ethical Code. A. Stead.
 The Japanese Warrior: Old Style. W. P. Reeves.
 Canon Ainger. Edith Sichel.
 Italian Policy and the Vatican. Concluded. Commendatore F. Santini.
 The Prussian Co-operation at Waterloo. J. Holland Rose.
 Pescocostanzo and Its Lacemakers. Illustrated. Marchesa De Viti De Marco.

National Review.—London. April.

The Russian Collapse in the Far East. Ignotus.
 The Political Situation in Austria and Hungary. Francis Kossuth.
 The American Revolution. Prof. J. K. Laughton.
 Is Fiction Deteriorating? Miss Jane H. Findlater.
 Early Recollections of Mr. Lecky. A College Friend.

III.—A FEW LEADING CONTINENTAL REVIEWS FOR MARCH.

FRENCH.

Revue Des Deux Mondes.—Paris. March 1.

The Route from St. Helena.—The Last Days of Napoleon in France. Henri Houssaye.
 A Conqueror. (III.) Édouard Rod.
 The Criticism of Art and Its Actual Conditions. Émile Michel.
 The Evolution of Military Tactics. Conclusion.
 Great Britain and the Supremacy of the Sea. A. Moireau.

La Revue.—Paris. March 1.

Confidences of Successful Men. (A Study of Ordinary Children and Prodiges.)
 Deforestation and Decadence. Dr. F. Regnault.
 A Port Royal of the New World (Elbert Hubbard's "Roycroft"). M. C. Duby.
 The Family and Love in the Scandinavian Novel. Mme. R. Rémusat.
 New Treatment for Cancer. Dr. A. de Neuville.

GERMAN.

Deutsche Rundschau.—Berlin. March.

Herbert Spencer. Ferdinand Tönnies.
 The Living Statesmen of England. Felix Salomon.
 Mirabeau and Lavater. Alfred Stern.
 German Southwest Africa.
 The Christian Church in Turkey.
 Lord Roberts of Kandahar. M. von Brandt.

Deutsche Revue.—Berlin. March.

A View of the Field of War in the Far East. Vice-Admiral D. Valois.
 The Origin of the Trouble with the Hereros. A. von Schleinitz.
 A Sketch of My Service in the Austrian Navy. Vice-Admiral D. Paschen.
 Memoirs of Giuseppe Zanardelli.
 The Naval Situation in the Far East. Sir C. C. P. Fitz Gerald.
 Germany's Colony of Kiau-Chau. Dr. Schrameler.
 The Interests of Austria-Hungary and Russia in the Maintenance of the Status Quo in the Balkans. Count Rudolph Waldburg-Zell.

SPANISH.

España Moderna.—Madrid. March 1.

Some Illusions as to the Social Problem. Edmundo González-Blanco.

Representative Government and War. Col. Lonsdale Hale, R.E.
 Australia and Preferential Trade. Hon. B. R. Wise.

Nineteenth Century and After.—London. March.

The Unity of the Empire. Lord Thring.
 Russia, Japan, and Ourselves. C. A. W. Pownall.
 Russia's Financial Position. O. Eltzbacher.
 The Proposed Educational Concordat. Rev. John Hughes.
 Sir George Colley in South Africa: Mr. Morley's Chapter on Majuba. Mrs. Beaumont (Lady Pomeroy-Colley).
 The Franciscan Legends in Italian Art. Emma Gurney Salter.
 The Snake-Dancers of Mishongnovi. R. B. Townshend.
 India and Tariff Reform. Sir Edward Sassoon.
 The Recognition of the Drama by the State. Henry Arthur Jones.
 What is a University? Walter Frewen Lord.
 The Flight of the Earls. Philip Wilson.
 The War Office Revolution and Its Limits. Sidney Low.
 Some Duties of Neutrals. Sir John Macdonell.

Westminster Review.—London. March.

Kant as a Democratic Politician. Karl Blind.
 The Left Wing—Past and Future. A Radical of '85.
 Protection and Free Trade: A Dishonest Policy. M. D. O'Brien.
 The Burden of Empire. J. G. Godard.
 A Spanish Romeo and Juliet. Continued. Hubert Reade.
 Rent: Its Use and Abuse. Evelyn Ansell.
 Byzantine Greece. Continued. W. Miller.
 The Science and Art Department at South Kensington. Hugh Blaker.
 Miss Susan B. Anthony; the Grand Old Woman of To-Day. Ignota.
 Agrarian Panmixia. W. R. MacDermott.
 Freedom and Protection Principles. J. Lyonel Taylor.

The Regulation of the Press in Spain. Juan Pérez de Guzmán.
 Recollections of José Echegaray.
 Intellectuality and Spirituality. Miguel de Unamuno.
 A Study of Typhoid Fever. Antón Tchekov.

Revista Contemporánea.—Madrid. February 15.

The Anarchist Superstition. Edmundo González-Blanco.
 Liberty: A Philosophical Study. Enrique Pacheco de Leyva.
 A Mission to Rome in Ancient Times. Juan Ortega Rubio.
 Russian Literature. Antonio Morillo.
 The Teaching of Geography. R. Alvarez Sereix and Leopoldo Pedreira Taibo.
 Criminality. Manuel Gil Maestre.

ITALIAN.

Nuova Antologia.—Rome. March 1.

Impressions of Macedonia. (I.) Francesco Guicciardini.
 Italy and the Papacy. Giacomo Barzelotti.
 Our National Liberty. Ernesto Monachi.
 The War of Finance. Argentarius.
 Italy and Austria in the Balkans.

Rassegna Nazionale.—Firenze. March 1.

Francesco Crispi. Ugo Pesci.
 Studies of Albania. Paolo Gazza.
 Religious Popular Music in Italy. A. Ghignoni.

BELGIAN.

Revue Générale.—Brussels. March 1.

The Movement for Labor Organization in Germany. V. Brants.
 The Situation of Catholicism in Norway. P. Halfants.
 An Introduction to a Study of the Eighteenth Century. Joseph Ageorges.
 Korea. Gollier Ruelle.

SWISS.

Bibliothèque Universelle.—Lausanne. March.

The Radioactivity of Matter. Alph. Bernoud.
 Art and Matter According to Anatole French. (II.) Paul Stopfer.
 A Prehistoric Art. Valentine Claudius Jacquet.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

BOOKS ABOUT THE FAR EAST.

IF any book was ever timely in every sense of the word, Angus Hamilton's "Korea" (Scribners) certainly can be called so. A full, well-put description of the land and the people, illustrated from photographs and supplemented by a map and various statistical tables, this is a very interesting and useful volume. Mr. Hamilton knows his Korea thoroughly, and understands how to tell what he knows. He can talk in economics and politics as well as in terms of social and commercial life. In his introduction, he graphically outlines the stakes for which Japan and Russia are playing in the Hermit Kingdom,—“the helpless, hopeless sport of Japanese caprice or Russian lust.” Korea's army is worthless, and her navy “is composed of twenty-three admirals and one iron-built coal lighter, until quite lately the property of a Japanese steamship company.”

“Japan is neither a purgatory, as some would have it, nor a paradise, as others maintain, but a land full of individuals in an interesting stage of social evolution.” In the spirit of this statement, Mr. Sidney L. Gulick has written a valuable book, “The Evolution of the Japanese” (Revell). Long residence in Japan has given Mr. Gulick unusual facilities for study of the people and the conditions under which they have developed. He considers not so much the material progress of the “Yankees of the East” as the individual and national character,—its honesty, patriotism, originality, courage, ambition, fickleness, and ideals. A Japanese critic, writing in the *Kobé Chronicle*, compliments Mr. Gulick on his success in depicting the national character. The author is a missionary of the American Board in Japan, and his judgments, while broad and philosophic in tone, reveal the ethical insight which makes them so much the more valuable in portraying the temperament and ideals of a people. Although in time Japan, he says, may completely individualize her social order, it will never be identical with that of the West. It will always bear the marks of her Oriental social heredity. But she will no doubt become and remain the most Occidental of truly Oriental peoples.

The emergence of the United States as a colonial power seems to have stimulated the study of colonial institutions. During the last three or four years, several important treatises on colonial policy and administration have been written by American students. The most recent of these is the study of “The Dutch in Java,” by Prof. Clive Day, of Yale University (Macmillan). Professor Day has gone back as far as existing records could take him into the history of Dutch administration in the far East. Any study of Java involves, of course, some investigation into the policy followed by the English during their occupation of the island. But the chief value of the book lies in its account of the native organization, which, after all, is the most important factor in the history of Java. The extent to which Java is to-day governed by the Javanese themselves is usually underestimated by English and American students. The facts as brought out by

Professor Day are extremely interesting in their bearing on the question of colonial administration in general, and particularly on our own national problems in the Philippines. The history of the rise, prosperity, and decline of the Dutch East India Company, as revealed in this study of Dutch relations in Java, is most instructive.

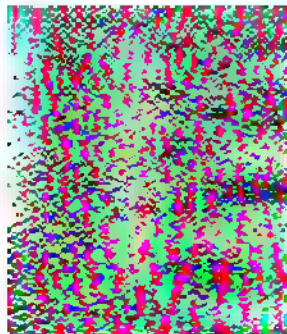
“In Famine Land” is the title of a book made up of observations and experiences in India during the great drought of 1899-1900, by the Rev. J. E. Scott (Harpers). Dr. Scott served as the chairman of the Methodist Episcopal Mission Relief Committee during the famine, and as a member of several other committees of the same kind, and was jointly responsible for the distribution of hundreds of thousands of dollars contributed to the relief funds by Americans. Aside from the interest that will naturally be taken by all such contributors in learning of the disposition made of their contributions, there is a large amount of information in this volume that cannot fail to prove of great assistance in the event of future Indian famines. It gives a clear idea of the methods employed by these various relief committees, and shows how practical and rational are the various instrumentalities that experience has developed in dealing with this complex problem.

BIOGRAPHY AND RECOLLECTIONS.

Mr. Francis E. Leupp's volume, “The Man Roosevelt” (Appletons), is in no sense a campaign biography. Indeed, its author expressly denies that it is a biography at all. He calls it a “portrait sketch,” and the term is well chosen. Mr. Leupp, as the Washington correspondent of the *New York Evening Post*, has been so long at the heart of things, political and governmental, at Washington that it is doubtless quite impossible, as it certainly would be undesirable, for him to attempt to separate the President's personality from its present environment. He therefore attempts merely to picture the man as he is, surrounded by counselors in and out of the cabinet, and contending oftentimes with malign influences “underground,” as the saying is, in his own party. It is characteristically a correspondent's portrayal of the influences that are grouped about the national administration. So much of the book is taken up by this kind of portraiture that if it had ever been intended as a biography the critics would pronounce it ill-proportioned. Regarded, not as a biography, but as a “portrait sketch,” it is admirable. Many of the chapters fairly throb with action, and the book as a whole is a *résumé* of what has been going on in Washington in the past few years. The writer dodges none of the crucial questions in national politics. His attitude toward Mr. Roosevelt is by no means that of indiscriminate praise, but he criticises freely wherever criticism seems to him justifiable. In short, his whole aim has been to tell what he knows from personal observation of Mr. Roosevelt's varied activities and interests; and the personal friendship of many years has put him in a way to know a great deal.

A MODERN CLERICAL CAREER.

"A Preacher's Story of His Work," by Dr. W. S. Rainsford (Outlook Company), is unique among recent attempts at autobiography; for this book relates, not only the story of the man's life, interesting as that is



REV. W. S. RAINSFORD, D.D.

from many points of view, but the story of what amounts to a real revolution in church methods in the peculiar conditions of New York's great East Side. It is a record of the transformation of what twenty years ago was regarded as a dying church into one of the most active and aggressive city parishes in the whole world. The rector of St. George's is nothing if not outspoken. There are passages in his book

which may at times disturb the smug complacency of the average self-satisfied churchman, but the author's earnestness and genuineness are so apparent that more readers are likely to be won than repelled by his frank utterances. All who have watched the marvelous growth of St. George's work on the East Side will be interested in the story from the lips of the man whose life, as the publishers of the work say in the prefatory note, lay back of the achievement.

TWO COLONIAL FATHERS.

Mr. Augustus C. Buell has written an interesting book on "William Penn as the Founder of Two Commonwealths" (Appletons). The life of William Penn has been reviewed from various standpoints, often from that of religious sectarianism. It is Mr. Buell's purpose in the present volume to emphasize the secular and the temporal side rather than the religious. The latter half of the volume is, in fact, a history of the beginnings of Pennsylvania rather than a biography of Penn.

"James Oglethorpe, the Founder of Georgia," is the subject of a sketch in Appletons' "Historic Lives Series" by Harriet C. Cooper. That ancient colonial worthy is less known, it is said, in Georgia than he should be, since it is the opinion of this author that Washington is no better entitled to be called "the Father of his Country" than Oglethorpe is to the same distinction with reference to the State which he founded. It is true of this volume, as of Mr. Buell's life of William Penn, that its chapters really make up, in great part, the history of the commonwealth, so intimately interwoven was Oglethorpe's career with that of his pet colony.

AN EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZER.

Few more active Americans have lived in recent times than the late Dr. William Pepper, provost of the University of Pennsylvania, who died in 1898, at the age of fifty-five. The authorized biography of this noted educational worker has been written by Dr. Francis Newton Thorpe (Lippincott). By the time Dr. Pepper had reached the age of fifty years, he had been recognized as the founder of three institutions in the city of Philadelphia,—the University Hospital, the Commercial Museum, and the Philadelphia Free Library. He had

also practically reorganized the University of Pennsylvania, and had brought about the improvement of the city's water-supply, besides doing much to further the interests of public education in the city. In carrying out this plan, Dr. Pepper had raised more than \$10,000,000, adding a personal gift of nearly \$500,000, which he had earned in the practice of his profession. As Dr. Thorpe remarks, it may be doubted whether any other American has run a like career.

THE ARTIST WHISTLER.

Arthur Jerome Eddy's "Recollections and Impressions of James McNeill Whistler" (Lippincott) is a handsome volume, graced with reproductions of a number of

THE LATE DR. WILLIAM PEPPER.

the famous artist's most famous paintings. The work is based on a series of lectures on Whistler and his art delivered by Mr. Eddy during the past ten years. His aim has been to convince the world that Whistler was "a profoundly serious, earnest, loving, and lovable man." In the artist's own words, in "Ten O'Clock" may be found a character sketch of himself. "This man, who took no joy in the ways of his brethren,—who cared not for conquest, and fretted in the field,—this designer of quaint patterns, this deviser of the beautiful, who perceived in nature about him curious curvings, as faces are seen in the fire; this dreamer apart, was the first artist."

FROM WAR CORRESPONDENT TO RAILROAD MAGNATE.

The two volumes containing the "Memoirs of Henry Villard, Journalist and Financier, 1885-1900" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) are worthy of more than the passing notice that we are able to give them. Mr. Villard's life-story was full of dramatic interest. Landing at New York in 1858, a raw German youth, unable to speak a word of English, within a few years he made himself a leader in the exacting calling of the American journalist, and when the Civil War came on none of the correspondents at the front made a more honorable record. It was in the seventies and early eighties that

THE LATE HENRY VILLARD.

Mr. Villard became a successful railroad financier, at last gaining control of the Northern Pacific, only to lose it, with practically all that he possessed, after two years. How his fortune was won again is another of the modern romances of Wall Street. Even in America, such a career is far from ordinary. Apart from the

personal element, the memoirs have a distinct value as a contribution to the history of the Civil War. In the later years of his life, Mr. Villard made an exhaustive study of the military operations which he witnessed as a correspondent. With the aid of the official records of both armies, he was able to construct an extremely interesting and illuminating account of the various movements and battles of which he had personal knowledge.

BIOGRAPHIES OF NAPOLEON.

Despite the mass of book and magazine literature about the great French emperor, it was decidedly worth while making a scholarly retranslation of one of the old standbys, August Fournier's biography. For years, this was the standard life of Napoleon. It presents a really philosophical view of him, considering him, not primarily as the ruthless conqueror or the despot, but as, "at the same time, the product and the consummation of the Revolution." "Napoleon the First" (Holt) has been translated by Margaret B. Corwin and Arthur D. Bissell, and edited by Edward Gaylord Bourne, professor of history at Yale University.

Prof. R. M. Johnston's "Biography of Napoleon" (Barnes) will be useful chiefly as a brief, lucid account of the changes wrought in Europe by the first Emperor of the French, and as a guide to the best books of Napoleons.

NEW VOLUMES OF HISTORY AND POLITICS.

There is much of instruction and suggestion for the citizen of to-day in George B. McClellan's "Oligarchy of Venice" (Houghton), the publication of which has been almost simultaneous with its author's inauguration as mayor of New York.

This essay on the rise and fall of the famous government by cabal which made and unmade the republic of traders on the sea islands points a moral for political machines singularly apropos of the notorious organization which supported his candidacy. "Imperialism," "class government," and the misused power of a great political machine were the cause of Venice's downfall. Mr.

McClellan traces the growth of the aristocracy of wealth, and its enormous influence in the commercial republic, an influence which was at last the prime cause of the nation's ruin. The similarity in essence between the contests of the famous Doges and the political struggles in the America of to-day is at times very striking.

The latest volume of the "Cambridge Modern History" (Macmillan) is "The Reformation." Volume II. This whole series, it will be remembered, begins with the discovery of America and brings history down to the present day. Two volumes of the total twelve have already appeared,—Volume I., on the Renaissance, and Volume III., on the United States. The whole subject of this volume is treated in nineteen chapters, each written

by a different scholar. The facts of the Reformation are considered in Rome, Austria, France, Germany, England, Switzerland, Spain, Scandinavia, and Poland, and the strong chapters are on Luther, Calvin, Henry the Eighth, and "tendencies of European thought in the age of the Reformation." The main issue of the Reformation, as formulated by Mr. A. F. Polard (of the University College, London), may be given in this paragraph:

"The origin of the whole movement was a natural attempt on the part of man, with the progress of enlightenment, to emancipate himself from the clerical tutelage under which he had labored for centuries, and to remedy the abuses which were an inevitable outcome of the exclusive privileges and authority of the Church. This was, roughly speaking, the main issue of the Reformation; it was practically universal, while the dogmatic questions were subsidiary, and took different forms in different localities."

The last work of the late Sir Leslie Stephen is a volume of Oxford lectures on "English Literature and Society in the Eighteenth Century" (Putnam). The eighteenth century in English history was a period with which Sir Leslie Stephen was especially familiar, as has been well shown in other works, notably the two volumes entitled "English Thought in the Eighteenth Century."

The history of "The French Revolution" has been made up from three chapters in the late William E. H. Lecky's "History of England During the Eighteenth Century." Historical notes have been added by Professor Bourne, of the Western Reserve University (Appletons). It is believed that it will prove an advantage to have these chapters by Lecky brought out from their place in the larger work. They include Mr. Lecky's interpretation of the Revolution and his explanation of the hearings of events in France at that time upon world-history. Professor Bourne has himself added helpful bibliographical notes.

Daniel Williams Harmon's "Voyages and Travels in the Interior of North America" (A. S. Barnes & Co.) is a fur-trader's story of explorations in the Canadian Northwest one hundred years ago. Mr. Harmon was a partner in the Northwest Company, and resided in different parts of that wild country for a period of some nineteen years. In addition to his journal entries, which began in 1800 and ended in 1816, there are included in the present volume accounts of the Indians living west and east of the Rocky Mountains, respectively. The first edition of Harmon's book was printed as long ago as the year 1820, and ever since that time the book has grown steadily in repute among students of Canadian history.

Prof. N. S. Shaler, of Harvard University, believes that young people are naturally and largely interested in all matters relating to the management of public affairs, and that our parents and schools cannot too soon bring before the young "an understanding of the re-

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HON. GEORGE B. MCCLELLAN.

PROF. N. S. SHALER.

lation which the individual bears to the government which controls his conduct as a citizen." So he has prepared a study of the individual and the government under the title "The Citizen" (Barnes). The whole range of civics in its wider aspects is covered by Professor Shaler in his own stimulating style.

A very informing little book on the functions of government is "The Ship of State, by Those at the Helm" (Ginn). It consists of a series of articles full of information and interpretation on all the important departments of our national government by men who are, or have been, officially connected with the departments about which they write. Mr. Roosevelt (when he was Governor of New York) wrote on the Presidency; Senator Lodge writes on the life of a Senator, and the late Thomas B. Reed on the life of a Congressman; Judge Brewer writes on the Supreme Court, John D. Long on the navy, General Ludington on the army, William R. Day on diplomacy, and ex-Postmaster W. L. Wilson on the post-office. The book is illustrated.

FINANCIAL AND COMMERCIAL TREATISES.

A rather elaborate but not too ambitious work on "International Exchange" has been prepared by Anthony W. Margraff, manager of the foreign department of the National Bank of the Republic, of Chicago. It is a study and compendium of the whole subject of world-exchange, with special reference to the administration of foreign banking by American bankers. Even a cursory examination of this volume convinces us on two points,—first, the thoroughness and comprehensiveness of the work; and, second, the number of things we have not known about foreign exchange, but which our new position in international affairs makes it necessary for us to grasp.

The first volume in the series of publications of the College of Commerce and Administration of the University of Chicago is entitled "Lectures on Commerce" (University of Chicago Press). The introductory lecture by Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin is a discussion of higher commercial education. On each of the general topics,—railways, trade and industry, banking, and insurance,—there are five lectures by experts in these respective departments. Thus, Mr. A. W. Sullivan, of the Illinois Central Railroad, discusses railway management and operation; Vice-President Kenna, of the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé Railway system, discusses railway consolidation; Mr. Franklin H. Head writes about the steel industry; Mr. John Lee Mahin on the commercial value of advertising, and ex-Comptroller Eckels on the methods of banking. It is a new thing to have these topics treated in university lectures by practical business men, and possibly it is significant of a new tendency in American university life.

The late Charles Waldo Haskins, of New York City, was profoundly interested in the question of business education in its higher aspects. Several of his addresses and writings on this and allied themes have been brought together in a volume entitled "Business Education and Accountancy" (Harpers), under the editorship of Dr. Frederick A. Cleveland, of the University of Pennsylvania. The volume treats of such themes as the scope of banking education, the growing need for higher accountancy, the place of the science of accounts in collegiate commercial education, and the history of accountancy. These papers are preceded by a brief biographical sketch of Mr. Haskins.

A practical treatise in Appletons' "Business Series"

is devoted to "The Modern Bank." The author, Mr. Amos K. Fiske, is associate editor of the *Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin*, of New York City, and is qualified by intimate acquaintance with New York banking methods to write a treatise of exceptional value to bankers the world over. All the questions that naturally suggest themselves in connection with a description of any modern bank and its methods are discussed in a clear, non-technical style, the presentation being, in many instances, as interesting to the general public as to the bankers themselves. Several chapters on foreign banking systems are included.

LETTERS, ART, AND FICTION.

MORE TOLSTOYANA.

Of the making of books about Tolstoy, there seems to be no end. The latest contribution to the already voluminous literature on this great man is Dr. Edward Steiner's "Tolstoy the Man." Dr. Steiner, who is professor of applied Christianity in Iowa College, was recently sent abroad by the *Outlook*, and spent several months in Russia for the express purpose of obtaining material for this book. He stayed at Yasnaya Polyana, Tolstoy's residence, and had unusual facilities for seeing the philosopher-author-reformer in all his moods and tempers. Besides, he has been a close Tolstoy student for years. "There was a man sent from God whose name was"—Tolstoy, is Mr. Steiner's summing up. The great Russian, he believes, while a true Muscovite and the product of true Russian conditions, nevertheless has a message for the world,—to bring to it a philosophy of life which shall be in harmony with the teachings of Jesus. It is a sympathetic but just characterization of the philosopher which he gives,—as the writer can say from a personal knowledge of Tolstoy. This volume is illustrated with reproductions of paintings and sketches by the brilliant, strange young Russian artist, Pasternak, who is an enthusiastic admirer of Tolstoy. The collection of tales written by Tolstoy in his earlier years of authorship, which have been collected under the general title "Sevastopol," has been translated by Louise and Aylmer Maude and published in this country (Funk & Wagnalls). They are stories of the Crimean War,—of the memorable siege of Sevastopol. This was the first of Tolstoy's works to gain international recognition,—and no wonder. The whole atmosphere of war breathes through them with a realism and amplitude which is a combination of the best of Kipling and Stephen Crane,—and superior to both. The publishers are planning to bring out all of Tolstoy's works in a uniform American edition.

MUSIC, PICTURES, AND THE STAGE.

In his introduction to the translation of Maurice Kufnerath's volume, "Wagner's Parsifal" (Holt), H. E. Krehbiel, musical critic of the New York *Tribune*, declares "no musical or dramatic composition has ever engrossed the attention of the cultured world as the Swan Song of the great German poet-composer is now engrossing it. This study of the French critic Mr. Krehbiel calls "the best single help to the study of 'Parsifal.'" It contains not only the story of the *Bahnenweihfestspiel*, a musical analysis of the principal themes, and an account of the Baireuth production, but an examination of the legends and medieval poems which Wagner drew upon for his plot. The volume (which is translated by Louise M. Henemann) is illus-

trated with half-tone reproductions of stage pictures of the Metropolitan Opera House production. A rather well-told and interesting paraphrase of the legend of the Holy Grail, by Mary Hanford Ford, has been published (Alice B. Stockham) for its value as a moral lesson. H. R. Haweis, author of "My Musical Memories," "Music and Morals," and other works, has written a sympathetic analysis of the story and opera "Parsifal." This is issued (Funk & Wagnalls) with a portrait of the composer and scenes from the opera. And, by the way, the Ditson Company, following its usual custom, has brought out the libretto (English and German text) of "Parsifal," bound in paper.

A short but adequate history of "The Development of the Drama" (Scribners), by Prof. Brander Matthews, of Columbia University, has just been published in one volume. This is a valuable monograph in which the essential unity of the history of the drama is brought out and the permanence of the principles underlying the art of the stage made plain. The chapters were originally delivered as lectures before the Royal Institution of Great Britain, the Brooklyn Institute, and Columbia University.

Henry R. Poore believes that "although the student has been abundantly supplied with aids to descriptive art, there is little within his reach concerning pictorial composition." Several years ago, he prepared a book (which has just gone into its second edition) entitled "Pictorial Composition" (Baker, Taylor), a handbook for students and lovers of art and the critical judgment of pictures. Reproductions of famous paintings serve to illustrate his observations, which are helpful and seem to be adequate. The principles and aesthetics of composition have seldom been so clearly and interestingly presented.

Four new issues of the "Musician's Library" have been issued by the Oliver Ditson Company, which may be obtained bound either in paper or in cloth. There are two devoted to Franz Liszt,—twenty original piano compositions and twenty piano transcriptions. These are edited by August Spanuth. The original compositions are the more or less well-known ones of Liszt. The transcriptions contain all the adaptations of compositions by Alabieff, Chopin, Gounod, Franz, Paganini, Rossini, Schubert, Schumann, Verdi, and Wagner. The other two volumes are songs by Johannes Brahms and Robert Franz, the former edited by James Huneker, and the latter by William Foster Apthorp. These contain songs in both English and German. In the Brahms book, there are eighty compositions of this "first composer, since Beethoven, to sound the note of the sublime influence of the orchestra." Each volume of the four contains an excellent portrait of the composer, a sketch of his musical career, an interpretation of his music, and a bibliography of works about him, in both English and German. The Franz collection has, in addition, the facsimile of a manuscript of "Auf

dem Meere." This facsimile shows Franz's "habitual method of composing, which, like Beethoven's, consisted mainly of a snowball-like accumulation of corrections on an original sketch."

NEW NOVELS AND A NEW EDITION.

Sunshiny brightness and the daintiness of a box of bonbons are the qualities which Henry Harland's latest novel possesses in an unusual degree. "My Friend Prospero" (McClure) is charming. In the Apennines, a clever young Englishman, "Prospero" (although his real name is John), meets a bright, witty young woman. They fence with intellectual swords, in a sparkling friendship, which sends off so much keen and rippling dialogue that the reader feels they richly deserve the happiness which comes to them when "he dropped on one knee before her and the delicate white hand was surrendered."

Cyrus Townsend Brady has written a novel in which "the beautiful Southern girl does not espouse the brave Union soldier, or the beautiful Northern girl the brave Southern soldier. They were all Southerners, all true to the South, and they all stayed so, except Admiral Vernon (the heroine's father), and he does not count." The novel "A Little Traitor to the South" (Macmillan) is a good love-story, handsomely printed.

The elegant Dent edition of the prose works of Thackeray has been imported by the Macmillans. This edition, which has been illustrated copiously by Charles E. Brock, is edited by Walter Jerrold. In binding, paper, and typography, this is certainly one of the most satisfactory editions of Thackeray yet issued. It contains just enough of the biographical and explanatory notes to be helpful without seeming overloaded.

CYRUS TOWNSEND BRADY.

A BOOK OF TENDER ESSAYS.

A year or more ago, there appeared in *Harper's Magazine* a number of tender, delicate little pastels of family and home life under such titles as "Father," "Mother," "Little Sister," etc. The author, Roy Rolfe Gilson, afterward collected them in a book entitled "In the Morning Glow." Some of them have just been republished under the title "Mother and Father" (Harper's) in a handsome holiday volume illustrated by Alice Barber Stephens.

NATURE BOOKS.

Dr. John P. Munson's lectures on methods of science-teaching have been published in book form under the title "Education through Nature Study.—Foundations and Method" (Kellogg). Dr. Munson is at the head of the Washington State Normal School, at Ellensburg, and has been remarkably successful as a teacher. This volume is number XXI. in Kellogg's "Teacher's Library."

A complete but not voluminous "History of Geology and Paleontology," to the end of the nineteenth century,

was finished in 1899 by Dr. Karl Alfred von Zittel, professor of geology and paleontology in the University of Munich and president of the Bavarian Royal Academy of Sciences. This has been translated by Dr. Maria M. Ogilvie-Gordon, and published by Walter Scott, in London. The Scribners are the American importers. Dr. von Zittel's work is scholarly and satisfactory. The volume is illustrated with portraits of famous geologists and paleontologists of all ages and countries.

A study of the birds common to the Eastern and middle States, couched in Olive Thorne Miller's best "nature language," is "With the Birds in Maine" (Houghton). Miss Miller knows her birds and her Maine, and her thoughts are always charmingly presented.

Mabel Nelson Thurston's "On the Road to Arcady" (Revell) is a romance of love and nature, charmingly illustrated by Samuel M. Palmer. The spring of nature and of the human heart are her themes—and they are daintily, sympathetically handled.

In her book "Lord Dolphin" (Dana Estes), Mrs. Harriet A. Cheever makes a veteran old dolphin tell the story of his own life so realistically, and with such entertaining side-remarks about the fish, the divers, the pearls, and the sponges at the bottom of the sea that every child ought to be fascinated by the pretty little volume.

Dr. John B. Watson, assistant in experimental psychology at the University of Chicago, has been experimenting on rats, and his conclusions as to the psychical development of the white species "as correlated with the growth of its nervous system" are given in a book entitled "Animal Education," just issued by the University of Chicago Press. This is a pioneer work, and may result in considerable scientific benefit.

A collection of dog stories and doggerel, "calculated to instill kindness into the heart without arousing the usual indignant protest against the story with a moral attached," is "Dogs of All Nations," in prose and rhyme (Ogilvie), by Conrad J. Miller. It is well illustrated.

"Not to be witty or wise, but simply to keep the records,"—this was the purpose of Bradford Torrey in compiling his "Clerk of the Woods" (Houghton, Mifflin). The book consists of thirty or more sketches, "the records of the woods and fields in New England for a year."

Could there be a better Scotch name than Alexander Wallace or a more patriotic Scotch duty than a tribute to the heather? It was well worth doing, this collection of "Heather in Lore, Lyric, and Lay," which Mr. Wallace, who is editor of the *Florists' Exchange*, has just brought out in a pretty little illustrated volume. He lays the whole matter before us,—a detailed history of the plant, from a botanical and horticultural point of view, as well as its economic uses, its folk-lore, traditions, poetry, legends, etc.

WORKS OF REFERENCE.

The new edition of the Standard Dictionary (Funk & Wagnalls Company) is notable for the expansion of the appendix, to include many new terms and meanings, some of which have been brought into the language since the Spanish American War and the resultant acquisition and occupation of new territories by the United States; for the added illustrations, for new entries in the list of proper names; and for the rewritten cyclopedia section, as well as for the careful revision of

the text throughout. It would be superfluous to add anything to the commendations of the Standard that have come in liberal measure from those best qualified to judge of such a work. This new revision makes its claims to popular favor still more secure.

Volumes II. and IV. of the Garnett and Gosse illustrated history of English literature have been brought out by the Macmillans. The first and third volumes of this work were noticed in this REVIEW for October, 1908. These later volumes complete the work, bringing the period considered down to the death of Queen Victoria. For wealth of illustration alone, this monumental undertaking is to be unreservedly praised. But it is also a seemingly inexhaustible mine of information, and typographically there is very little left to be desired.

RICHARD GARNETT.

A very useful work, the old "Chambers' Cyclopædia of English Literature," has been brought out in a new edition (Lippincott), edited by David Patrick, LL.D. This is "a history, critical and biographical, of authors in the English tongue from the earliest times to the present day, with specimens of their writings." Cyclopædias and dictionaries of literature need no justification, and certainly the old standbys have proved their right to survive. The original cyclopædia, as issued six years ago, was compiled by Dr.

EDMUND GOSSE.

Chambers in a two-volume form. The present edition consists of three volumes, and contains, besides the regular cyclopedic articles, signed contributions from a number of well-known literary writers, such as Dr. Stopford Brooke, Austin Dobson, Edmund Gosse, Andrew Lang, Sidney Lee, George Saintsbury, and others. It is well illustrated. In his preface, Dr. Patrick says the aim has been to give "an illustrated conspectus, a finger-post to the best books. . . . The very shortness and fewness of the excerpts . . . are meant to whet the appetite,—to be stepping-stones to the veritable books." He has included all the English-speaking world in his range, classing the United States as part of greater Britain.

"Who's Who" (for Great Britain) has come to be almost as necessary as the dictionary to a well-ordered life. The fifty-sixth issue of this invaluable manual has just been issued by Adam & Charles Black, of London. "Who's Who" for 1904 brings the biographies down to September 15, 1903. It is handled by the Macmillans in this country.

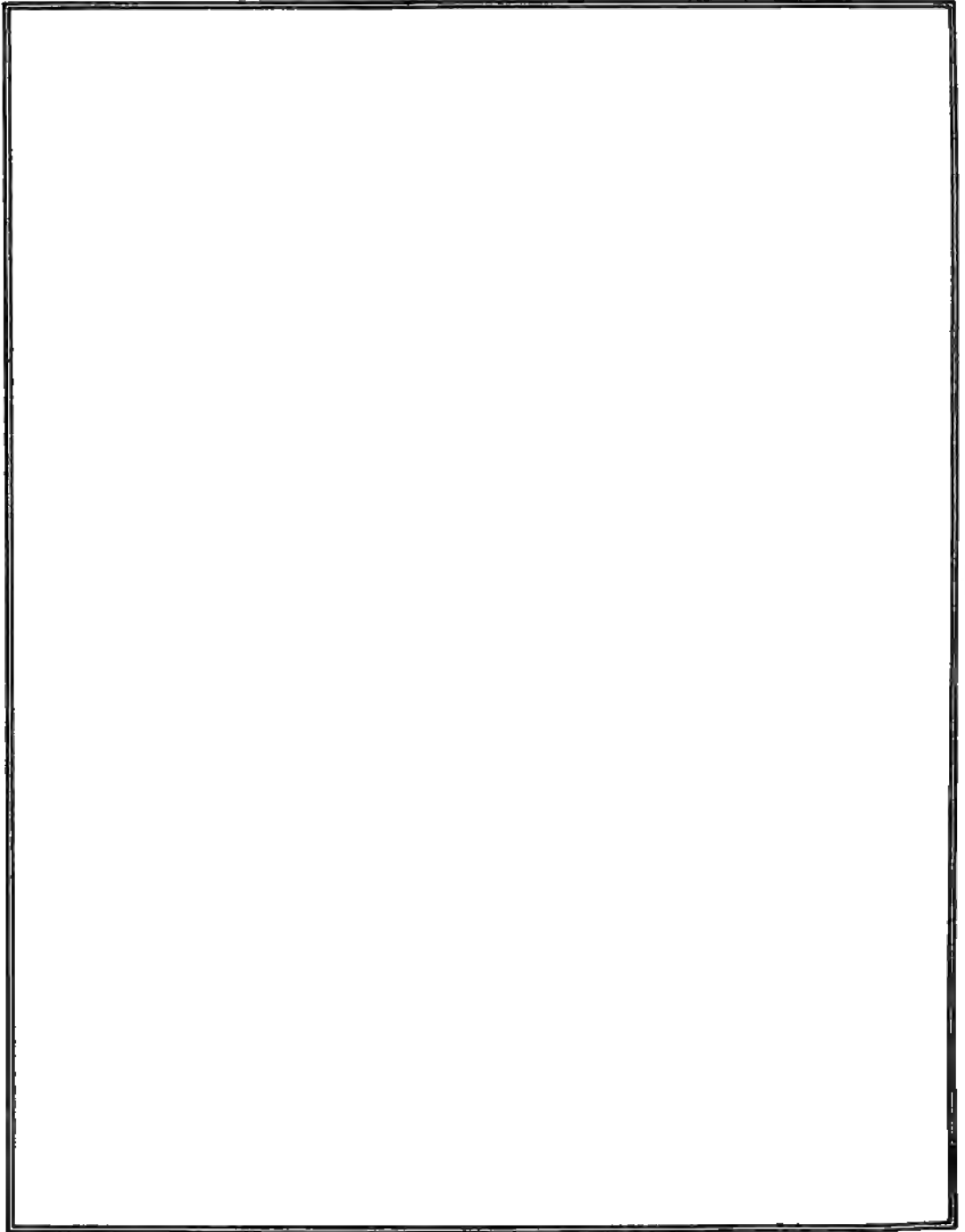
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THE LATE ADMIRAL STEFAN OSSIPOVITCH MAKAROFF.

(Commander of the Russian fleet in the far East who went down with the battleship *Petropavlovsk*,
April 13, 1904.)

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*The
Political
Season.*

In the United States, the coming six months will be largely devoted to politics. The American people for a century past have been accustomed to attend a school, so to speak, for politics and government during half of every fourth year. There are those who think that these political periods come too frequently, and that they disturb the course of private business. There is something to be said for this view. On the other hand, it may be argued that everything that is worth while in this country is dependent upon the maintenance of a trained and intelligent democracy, and a vigorous and well-informed public opinion. The political discussions and activities of Presidential years succeed in awakening interest in public affairs among myriads of men who are indifferent to politics at other times. The issues between candidates and platforms in the great national campaigns become for months the dominant theme in every hamlet and at every crossroads from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and from the Lakes to the Gulf. The pendency of these general issues lifts the citizenship of the country from purely local concerns to those of national scope, and thus promotes patriotism and a sense of nationality.

*The
Party Spirit.*

It is true that hard-and-fast partisanship makes to some extent for prejudice, and for the obscuring of the truth in these intense quadrennial struggles. The politicians on each side seem to care more for the victory of their party than for the good of their country,—or, rather, seem absolutely to identify their own party's cause with the public welfare. It is likely that we shall continue for some time to come to utilize our present closely organized and inelastic party mechanisms as the agents through which public opinion carries on the government of the country. But

we have reached a better period in the growth of American intelligence, and we have outlived most issues of a vitally antagonistic nature. We ought to find deliverance in the very near future from the evils of an intense and bitter party feeling. For many years past, under both parties, we have enjoyed upon the whole an able and honorable guidance of the affairs of the nation. Criticism is desirable; and harmony has by no means reached such a state that men's convictions will not afford them ground for earnest work in the campaign now approaching. But it does not seem likely that the situation will so shape itself as to justify on either side a campaign of bitterness, or wrath, or vituperation.

*The Leading
Democratic
Candidate.*

The strong trend of Democratic expression last month made it more than ever probable that the convention at St. Louis would nominate the Hon. Alton B. Parker, Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals of the State of New York. Judge Parker's continuous service of about twenty years on the bench has afforded no opportunity for the public to know much about his political opinions or his executive qualifications. But it is easy to ascertain that he is held in great respect by the bench and bar of New York for his integrity, ability, and learning as a judge, and that he is heartily esteemed by those who know him for personal qualities that entitle him to regard and confidence. Thus, the Democrats have found in Judge Parker a dignified and fitting personality; and if they should decide, at St. Louis, to make him their nominee for the Presidency, it would be absurd as well as unjust for the Republicans, in their campaign, to say anything about him in the nature of disparagement or detraction. Judge Parker is, of course, the better protected from such personal criticism by the fact that he is without political record.

Wall Street magnates, and the class of politicians of whom Mr. David B. Hill is a prominent type. In all this, however, there is nothing new. Judge Parker's prospective candidacy has been discussed for considerably more than a year, and there has been no mystery concerning the interests and influences that have been promoting it. That it was in the hands of powerful and skillful managers became clear to all as the date for the State Democratic convention approached. It was perceived that, in spite of the relentless opposition of the Tammany and Hearst forces, the Parker organization directed by Mr. Hill and Mr. Belmont would have an overwhelming majority of the delegates. The convention was held at Albany, on April 18. By a majority of two to one, the New York delegates to the St. Louis convention were instructed to support Judge Parker and to vote and act as a unit. Tammany opposed these instructions to the last.

The Albany Resolutions. The leaders of both parties throughout the country were naturally awaiting with keen interest the Albany platform. Although Judge Parker had carefully avoided direct expressions upon political matters, it was reported that he had been responsible in large part for the preparation of this platform, and that it had not been submitted to the convention until it had been most carefully considered by him and shaped to suit his views at all points. It was felt that the St. Louis platform would be likely to follow the trend of this Albany platform, in a negative if

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HON. ALTON B. PARKER.

(From a new photograph.)

*Judge
Parker's
Affiliations.*

The Democrats who have been most active in the support of other candidates, in the lack of anything detrimental to say about Judge Parker himself, have devoted their attention to his chief supporters. They have argued, from the fact that the most conspicuous of these workers for Judge Parker's nomination have been ex-Senator Hill and Mr. August Belmont, that these gentlemen and their friends would dominate his administration if he were elected. And it is natural enough that a portion of the Republican press should take its cue from these Democratic critics and hold up Judge Parker as the candidate of the trusts, the

*See
Hill
Belmont
CC*

"SEE ME DRIVE!"—From the American (New York).

(Note the relative positions of Belmont and Hill.)

From the New York American.

HON. BOURKE COCKRAN MAKING HIS IMPASSIONED APPEAL TO THE DELEGATES OF THE NEW YORK DEMOCRATIC STATE CONVENTION NOT TO BIND THE DELEGATES BY INSTRUCTIONS.

not in a positive sense. When, however, the platform appeared, it was found to be as non-committal an utterance as was ever made in the history of American political parties. It consists of a series of platitudes in ten sections. There is nothing in it that arraigns the other party, or that suggests any differences of opinion whatsoever upon which honest men might be divided into opposing political bodies. There is not a sentence in the entire platform which might not without alteration be incorporated in a Republican platform, a Populist platform, or a Prohibitionist platform. The first section declares that ours is a government of laws, and that nobody must encroach or usurp; the second, that we must keep inviolate our treaties, and must respect law and love liberty; the third, that we must be peaceful and tranquil, and avoid unsteady national policies; the fourth, that corporations must be subject to just regulation, and taxation for public purposes only; the fifth declares "opposition to trusts and combinations that oppress the people and stifle healthy industrial competition;" the sixth opposes extravagance in public expenditures; the seventh calls for a "reasonable revision of the tariff," and says that "needless duties" upon imported raw materials are detrimental to manufacturers and wage-earners; the eighth calls for the maintenance of State rights and home rule; the ninth

declares in favor of "honesty in the public service;" the tenth is a judicious declaration in favor of "the impartial maintenance of the rights of labor and of capital." These are all excellent maxims, which everybody can heartily indorse. But political platforms in a time of campaigning are not supposed to be made up of the most obvious truisms, but rather of concrete statements relating to current questions.

It had, indeed, been expected that *Conservative, as Had Been Expected.* Mr. Bryan's famous Kansas City platform would be ignored, that its chief points of emphasis would be forgotten, and that, while trying to preserve the air of party unity, the Albany platform would indicate a swing of the pendulum from the extreme radicalism of 1896 and 1900 to the conservatism of Mr. Cleveland and the so-called "Gold Democrats." This "sane" position had been strongly foreshadowed in the utterances of the two foremost members of the Democratic party,—the only men who have received Democratic nominations for the Presidency in the past twenty years. Mr. Cleveland had taken occasion to extol Judge Parker and the movement for his nomination, and to declare in that connection that "the conservative element of the party would control at St. Louis." Mr. Bryan, on the other hand, had with equal frankness declared

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so detrimental to Judge Parker as the corporate support which is gradually gathering about him." Mr. Bryan insisted, as the Hearst men have all along insisted, that under no circumstances would Mr. Parker, if nominated, be regarded as a "harmony" candidate; that the men who made and who still believe in the Democratic platforms of 1896 and 1900 would regard Judge Parker as the candidate of the corporations, the trusts, and the money power to a far greater extent than they would regard President Roosevelt as the candidate of the wealthy and privileged classes.

(The men in the foreground, reading from left to right, are ex-Senator Edward Murphy, Jr.; Mr. Charles Murphy leader of Tammany; Senator Patrick H. McCarren, member of the Democratic National Committee; August Belmont, and Hon. David B. Hill, the leader of the party in New York State.)

It was asserted some days before the Albany convention that there had been a wide difference of opinion between Mr. David B. Hill and Judge Parker as to the character of the platform to be adopted. It will be remembered by politicians that in the last State election Mr. Hill, apropos of the anthracite troubles in Pennsylvania, had put a public-ownership plank into the State platform; and it was believed that Mr. Hill desired this year to put a conservative candidate upon an adroitly prepared platform that would entice the radical and socialistic elements of the party. But Judge Parker was firmly of the opinion that there should be no compromise, and that conservatism should be as unmistakable in the platform as in the ticket. This view was regarded as expressing Judge Parker's own genuine convictions; but, apart from that, it also represented a tactical position capable of strong defense. It was the opinion of many good politicians that the strong conservative note would help Judge Parker in New York and other Eastern and Middle States, and in the South, while hurting him to some extent in the West and Northwest, where he could best afford the sacrifice. This effect seems to have been produced by the events of the Albany convention.

OVER THE HILL TO THE WHITE HOUSE.
Rather a rocky road for Judge Parker to travel.
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).

*A slender
Chance for
Harmony.*

On the other hand, it was felt that the active support of the Belmont and other Wall Street interests, and of the sound-money conservatives of the Cleveland school, would unite every element of opposition in a concentrated effort to give strength enough to the Hearst movement to secure for it a full one-third of the delegates at St. Louis. Even under those circumstances, it would be possible for the majority to abrogate the two-thirds rule that has so long prevailed in the national Democratic conventions, and control the ticket and platform with entire ease. But if this were done it would almost certainly precipitate a bolt from the convention and lead to the nomination of a third ticket that would be supported by the Hearst and Bryan Democrats, and by the Populist and Socialist elements. Such a movement would make a strong bid for the labor support, and might draw votes enough to insure Republican victory in States which would otherwise be doubtful. It would be too much to expect complete and enthusiastic harmony in the Democratic party this year. The only wonder is that the party has swung back so far from its positions of four and eight years ago without being completely shattered.

*Present
Southern
Sentiment.*

For its preservation intact through the vicissitudes of these past years, the party is indebted to its one reliable and unshrinking asset,—namely, the "Solid South." Eight years ago, the South followed the

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MR. AUGUST BELMONT.

(New York banker, and head of the underground rapid transit railway, who was prominent in securing the support of New York Democrats for Judge Parker.)

West in an enthusiastic adoption of the principles of "Coin" Harvey as popularly expounded by Mr. Bryan. Four years ago, for consistency's sake, it stood by Mr. Bryan in reaffirming the money plank of 1896. But this year it has swung completely back to its earlier views, and thus the money question disappears as a party issue. An eminent Southern Democrat is now governor of the Philippines, and the best opinion of the country seems pretty well united upon the altruistic view that for the present we must simply do the best we can for the Filipino people. The issue of imperialism, as passionately presented by Mr. Bryan four years ago, would fall flat in the South this year. It cannot play much practical part in the campaign. The steps that have been taken to secure the building of the Panama Canal upon a strip of territory brought under the perpetual sovereignty of the United States are in fruition of that expansion

DR. JEKYL AND MR. HYDE.

(Mr. Cleveland sees in Judge Parker the ideal Democrat, and Mr. Bryan sees the creature of the trusts.)

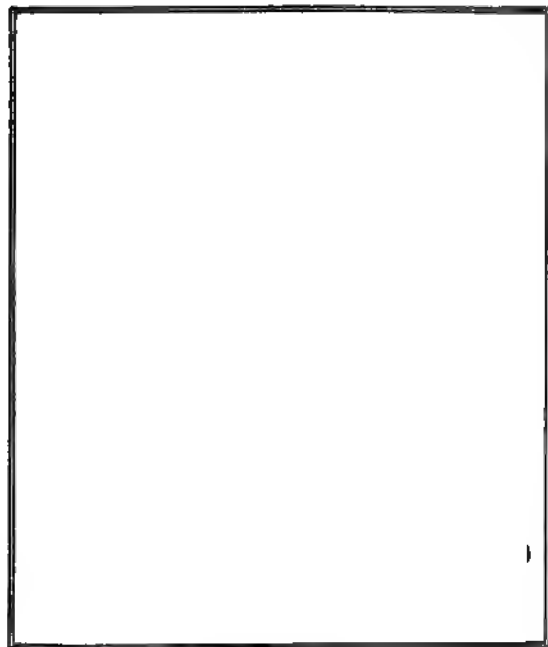
From the Press (Cleveland).

policy by which we have acquired Porto Rico and a great naval station on the southern coast of Cuba, to dominate the waters of the Caribbean Sea and the Gulf of Mexico; and in accordance with which we have acquired Hawaii, at the cross-roads of the Pacific, and will, under all circumstances, retain coaling and naval stations in the Philippines. The South is not unhappy about these matters.

The Philippines Not in Politics. Leading Filipinos themselves are now well aware that they are dealing, not with an imperialist administration at Washington, but rather with a liberty-loving American nation, and that no opportunity whatsoever will be withheld from them by the Americans if they show capacity to make use of it. In short, the Americans, under such leaders as General Wright, are going to do all they can for the welfare of the Filipino people; and the question yet to be answered is, how rapidly and energetically the Filipinos themselves will respond to their present and prospective opportunities. The time has almost arrived when they are to elect a legislature. They are already admitted to all the posts in the administration that they can well fill. Their control of local and municipal affairs is ardently desired by the American civil government. When they get their new legislature, it will from time to time

be accorded just as much power as it shows itself able to exercise with reasonable wisdom and fidelity. In short, we are urging the Filipinos along the path of self-government as fast as it is possible for them to move. We are holding the islands for them in trust. It is well that we keep their heritage for them in good order and good faith while we are training them toward the point where they can relieve us and assume charge for themselves. Meanwhile, we shall fairly have earned the right to especial advantages of a naval and commercial sort in the islands; and since the best thought of this country is not sharply divided, but concurs in the view that the Filipinos are not to be exploited, but helped, by us, it will not be possible this year to make any phase of the Philippine situation do major service as a party plank. Nobody could be more desirous than Judge Taft of the welfare of the Filipino people, and, speaking wholly from the view-point of their well-being, he is of opinion that the present is not an opportune time for making declarations as to the future. There are individuals who will set up their views against those of Judge Taft, but there is no large body of sentiment behind such individual expressions. The Philippine issue was settled by the people in the election of 1900, and it will not count this year.

Panama Not an Issue. As for the policy of the administration in recognizing the new Panama republic and acquiring from it the control by the United States of the canal zone, the approval of the country is too nearly unanimous to admit of any successful effort to involve the matter in party controversy. One-half of the Democratic Senators supported the treaty, as did the most influential Democratic newspapers of the South. Along with our allusion, last month, to the support given by the *Atlanta Constitution* to the Panama treaty, various other newspapers might have been mentioned, notably, for instance, the *Times-Democrat*, of New Orleans. But the interests of Louisiana and our greatest Southern port have all along been so strongly committed to an interoceanic canal that it was to be expected from the outset that the leaders of public opinion at New Orleans would not allow partisanship to blind them to the merits and advantages of the policy by which the Panama Canal has now become an assured enterprise. Thus, it would seem that the present attitude of the South, where most of the Democratic electoral votes are cast, renders it impossible for the party to give prominence to two of Mr. Bryan's three leading issues of four years ago,—namely, the money question and imperialism.



THE ADVANCE GUARD OF CIVILIZATION.
From the Press (Cleveland).

The third of those issues was the question of trusts. It is not likely that the trust question will arouse as much feeling in this year's campaign as it did four years ago. The Kansas City platform, as interpreted by the Democratic candidate, meant not merely the regulation and control of trusts, but their annihilation. The country, meanwhile, has added some notable chapters to its experiences with large corporations. It has been perceived that in the case of a good many so-called "trusts" the business world itself would effectively expose and punish misdeeds. Overcapitalization reveals itself in the stock market. The alleged oppressive monopoly, weighted down with overvalued and obsolete properties, and with fixed indebtedness, is an easy mark for fresh, up-to-date competition. Thus, it begins to be seen that the best regulator for the trusts lies in the inexorable working of the natural laws and forces of the business world. But beyond this there has been a steady advance in the study of the best means for regulating corporations, and everywhere there is expressed a determination that the Government and the law shall be superior to the corporations that the law creates. This sentiment is not partisan.

Four years ago, the Democracy was radically opposed to trusts. Judge Parker's plank this year makes nice discrimination, and expresses objection only to those trusts and combinations "that oppress the

*No Longer a
Party Issue.*

THE REPUBLICAN ELEPHANT: "Please paste that in your hat, Mr. Voter."—From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).

people and stifle healthy industrial competition." But most trusts avow themselves to be public benefactors; and competition, actual or potential, is a consideration that few trusts dare to ignore. In view, further, of the high favor with which Wall Street and the corporation leaders have for a year regarded Judge Parker's candidacy, it would not seem likely that his success at St. Louis would put much vigor into Democratic war cries against the money power and the trusts. The chief result, indeed, of the Hearst movement would be, in case of Judge Parker's nomination, to heighten the contrast between the two wings of the Democratic party in their attitude toward the trusts. Speaking relatively, the final effect would be to make the Democracy led by Judge Parker the pro-trust party, and the Republicans led by President Roosevelt the anti-trust party. The Bryan and Hearst elements can hardly fail to urge this point of view upon the St. Louis convention. It may influence campaign contributions.

That the tariff will to some extent be made an issue, is now generally admitted. But business interests are evidently adverse to much agitation of the tariff question, and the country does not seem inclined to do its tariff thinking in a political or party spirit. An attempt will be made to show that the tariff is advantageous to certain large industrial corporations; but it will be difficult to make out a case in support of the assertion that

*No Enthusiasm
for Tariff
Reform.*

ALLOPATHIC AND HOMEOPATHIC.

The two old parties have got together on the tariff medicine; it is merely a question as to the size of the dose.

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

Hon. David B. Hill.

Mr. James W. Ridgway.

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Hon. Edward Murphy, Jr.

Mr. George Ehret.

THE FOUR DELEGATES-AT-LARGE FROM NEW YORK TO THE NATIONAL DEMOCRATIC CONVENTION.

the general trust movement in this country has relied upon the protective tariff as a necessary condition. The free-trade movement of fifteen or twenty years ago was pushed in a doctrinaire spirit with a fervor strongly tinged by fanaticism. Opposed to the free-trade reformers, whose intensity surpassed even that of the anti-slavery leaders of the forties and the fifties, was a school of protectionists who also made a religion out of their economic and political tenets. So heroic and uncompromising were the moods of both sets of idealists that they would have done one another violence but for ordinary unemotional policemen and sheriffs. In those days, men talked logic and metaphysics, and knew very little about economics or history; but for purposes of tariff discussion, that period has passed away. Eight years ago, we saw the country aroused to a similar sort of religious passion in discussing the technicalities of the money question. This year, such topics do not appear to produce any excitement of the nerve centers. There are plenty of people in both parties who would like to have the present tariff schedules carefully and judiciously revised in the near future; but there are few who now become emotional when the tariff question is mentioned.

*Business
Versus
Politics.*

And this is as it ought to be, for the simple reason that the present tariff works tolerably well, business interests are adjusted to it, and commerce prefers conditions that are definite and understandable to those that are uncertain and variable. In other words, business men, of whatever party, do not care to have the tariff made the football of politicians for the mere sake of helping out in a Presidential election. Business interests, furthermore, have had a vast development of late, while party spirit has been relatively on the wane; and so

it has come to pass that the politicians of both parties listen submissively when the business men tell them that they must not make reckless politics out of the tariff question. As a matter of large national policy, many Republicans in New England and in the Northwest are convinced that we should seek to make a reciprocity treaty with Canada, as the beginning of more intimate relations with our neighbors on the north. But there are many indications—notably the action of the Massachusetts Republican convention last month—which make it clear that Canadian reciprocity will not be a distinct Republican tenet this year. The Republican view will be that the country has been remarkably prosperous under the Dingley tariff, and that changes must be careful and conservative.

Where there are real issues dividing great political parties, a man of ordinary intelligence is not puzzled to discover them. One has no trouble just now in finding party issues in England or in France; but when the intelligent foreigner comes to the United States, and asks, this year, as we are entering upon the preliminaries of a Presidential contest, what clear and marked issues of public policy divide the two great parties, candor compels the answer that there are no distinguishing issues whatsoever. The money question has disappeared. The protective policy is national, and is just as safe in the hands of one party as of the other. Both parties make ostentatious declarations against trusts and combinations of capital, while neither party is unified or consistent in its actual views or intentions on this question, and public feeling on the subject has hitherto been more local or sectional than partisan. The war with Spain was the result of a national movement, wholly free from party in-

Hon. Frank S. Black.

Hon. Chauncey M. Depew.

Hon. Benjamin B. Odell, Jr.

Hon. Thomas C. Platt.

THE FOUR DELEGATES-AT-LARGE FROM NEW YORK TO THE NATIONAL REPUBLICAN CONVENTION.

fluence; and, in the main, the policies that have followed the conclusion of that war have not been partisan, either in their inception or in their moral support.

To "Change" or Not to Change. The Republican party is more homogeneous than the Democratic, and it has always been more constructive and active. Its energy in doing things subjects it to criticism on the score of large expenditure. Not content with fostering industries by maintaining an unduly high tariff, the Republicans have allowed their leaders to be identified with projects for subsidizing steamship lines. Thus, the real issue this year is not to be found in any particular question like the tariff, or the trusts, or imperialism, or coinage and currency, or the relations of labor and capital, but rather in the question whether, on various grounds, a change from "King Stork" to "King Log" may not be desirable. In favor of a change, we always, in this country, have the great pressure of the "outs" to get "in." Our Presidential elections coincide not only with elections for members of Congress, but also nearly everywhere with the choice of State officers and members of legislatures, of county officers, and very generally, also, of municipal and township officers. Not only have we a vast number of elective offices to be filled on the eighth day of November, but also, in spite of the steady progress of civil-service reform, there remain throughout the country hundreds of thousands of appointive offices, more or less dependent upon the result of the elections. So long, then, as we have two permanent and closely organized parties whose affairs are managed chiefly by office-holders or office-seekers, there will be a struggle between those who hold power and those who seek it. Then there are always to be reckoned with those who be-

lieve that a change of parties is of itself a good thing from time to time. For the past eight years, the Republican party has been so powerful and so active, and the country has witnessed a series of developments so vast and so remarkable, that it would be very strange indeed if there were not some signs of reaction.

Roosevelt as an issue. Thus, if an entirely correct Democratic candidate like Judge Parker is to be nominated on a purely negative platform like that provided for him at Albany last month, there will be no serious issue before the country except that of giving or withholding a vote of confidence in the Roosevelt administration. Four years ago, one argument for reelecting Mr. McKinley was the pendency of much unfinished business resulting from the period of the war with Spain. President Roosevelt can now go before the country upon the record of a faithful completion of those items of business. Cuba is firmly established; civil government in the Philippines is a pronounced success; Porto Rico enjoys free trade with the United States, like Hawaii; Cuba and the Philippines have received tariff concessions; the war taxes have been abolished; the army has been reduced and reorganized. Our relations with foreign countries are more uniformly agreeable than at any former period. The Alaska boundary question has been satisfactorily settled; the canal question is removed from the sphere of diplomacy; the Monroe Doctrine has been well sustained in the settlement of the Venezuela dispute, and American rights and interests have been guarded in the Orient without endangering peaceful relations. The perfect neutrality that our government observed through the South African war, in which American sympathy was largely with the

Boers, is now maintained in the Russo-Japanese war, although popular sympathy is evidently with the Japanese.

*An
Eventful
Term.*

In other respects, President Roosevelt's administration has not been lacking in striking incidents and achievements. The settlement of the anthracite-coal strike, the creation of the Department of Commerce and Labor, the Northern Securities prosecution, the irrigation policy,—such are some of the matters that have made the administration noteworthy. But perhaps most important of all for purposes of the pending campaign has been the resolute investigation and prosecution of dishonesty in the Post-Office Department. As compared with the volume of business done by the department, the fraud that has been unearthed by relentless probing has been small in volume and has not implicated a relatively large number of people. But such was the influence of some of those people that it required firmness and courage to follow up the clues and expose all the rascals. President Roosevelt has done his duty in all this without bias or partiality. The Department of Justice has shown due energy in prosecuting those accused of wrongdoing, and there is nothing hidden that the most diligent effort can discover. Common honesty is not a virtue that either party can safely arrogate to itself in an exclusive sense. We live in an age when money and the things it can buy are too eagerly sought for. Since the passion for wealth has led to so much dishonesty and fraud in commercial life, it is not to be wondered at that some of the men who get into public office will make dishonorable use of their opportunities for private gain. The real test of the virtue of the Government and of the people is shown in the spirit in which remedies are applied when evils are discovered.

*The
Party and
Its Record.*

The President and his administration, while they will probably supply the chief issue in the campaign, cannot be presented as vicarious atonement for mistakes of Congress or for Republican shortcomings in particular States. Thus, the campaign in the State of New York will not leave State issues and State leaders out of the reckoning. Governor Odell has succeeded Senator Platt as head of the party, and he has succeeded Colonel Dunn as chairman of the Republican State Committee. He has been much criticised for taking the chairmanship while responsible to the whole State for the exercise of his duties as governor. The Legislature, which was strongly Republican in both branches, adjourned on April 15, after

acquiring a very unenviable reputation. In the opinion of the more independent-minded men of all parties, this legislature was controlled in the interest of great corporations, on behalf of which it passed a number of improper measures, scandalously sacrificing the public interest. A number of these bills were left in the governor's hands, to be approved or vetoed within the constitutional period of thirty days after adjournment. However much the voters of New York might like to rebuke the conduct of affairs at Albany, they are confronted by the fact that Democratic politics in New York is on an even lower plane than Republican politics. Neither party has yet decided upon its candidate for the governorship.

*The Work
of Congress.*

Congress expedited its business last month, with a view to an adjournment before the 1st of May, if possible,—April 28 having been tentatively chosen as the probable date for adjournment. The first, or long, session of each Congress usually extends well into the summer, because the second regular session ends on the 4th of March by limitation of the terms for which the Representatives have been elected. But it will be remembered that the present Congress was organized unusually early, having been called to meet in special session on November 9, with the object of approving the Cuban reciprocity treaty. A great variety of interesting and important measures has been considered by Congress this year, although few stand out in high relief. Along with the work going on in the legislative chambers, there has been an exceptional amount of interest shown in the proceedings of regular and special committees. It was decided that the committee inquiry affecting the seat of the Mormon Senator-elect, Mr. Smoot, would not be completed at this session, but that further evidence would be sought for in Utah. The special committee to investigate the charges against a large number of members of the House of Representatives, having to do with the Bureau of Salaries and Allowances in the Post-Office Department, made and completed its inquiry with unexpected promptness. This committee of seven, under the chairmanship of Mr. McCall, of Massachusetts, was unanimous in exonerating all the Congressmen. It found nothing to justify the opinion that any member of the House had profited in the slightest degree, or had done anything out of the ordinary custom. The committee makes the valuable suggestion, however, that henceforth members should greatly curtail their activity on behalf of constituents in the details of postal and other executive business. There was much disposition on the Democratic side of both branches of Con-

gress to hold that the Bristow investigation of postal frauds ought to be supplemented by a Congressional investigation. President Roosevelt has had no desire to prevent such an inquiry, although he has not believed that anything remains for it to find out. There was some prospect that the Senate Post-Office Committee might take the matter up. It is evident that the Democratic leaders in Congress were counting upon the Post-Office scandals for campaign material.

*Various
Details.*

The principal actual work of the session was confined to the appropriation bills, which reached an aggregate of about seven hundred million dollars. No attempt was made to enact a river and harbor bill or a general measure for public buildings. It was decided, however, to erect near the Capitol an office building for Senators, and the proposed enlargement of the central portion of the Capitol itself on the east side was indefinitely postponed. The Post-Office appropriation bill provides for the long-needed additional post-office buildings in New York City. The general deficiency bill carries a modest appropriation to meet requirements under the new pension order. In appropriating the money, Congress indorses the order itself. Among the measures passed was the Philippine bill, which provides for the granting of railroad franchises, and guarantees 5 per cent. upon the capital to be invested in the proposed roads. While the bill for purchasing the Calaveras grove of big trees in California at a cost of two hundred and fifty thousand dollars failed to secure the Speaker's approval, it is understood that in the next session provision will be made for condemning the grove and purchasing it at an appraised value. An important piece of legislation is that which provides for the government of the Panama Canal zone. One of the Panama commissioners will become governor of the territory, the President will appoint a United States district judge, the Panama Commission will itself exercise necessary legislative powers, a police force will be appointed, and the laws of the Panama republic, where applicable, will be recognized. Practically all preliminary conditions have been met, and it is expected that within a few days the United States will make the requisite payments and take possession of the Panama Railroad, the unfinished canal, and the prescribed strip of territory. The effort to accomplish the repeal of the desert-land laws and otherwise to modify the public-land system has failed for this year. Meanwhile, there cannot be too much study given to the working of the present land laws, and their application to existing conditions. The two measures at Wash-

ington upon which organized labor concentrated its efforts through the winter both failed to win approval. One of these, the anti-injunction bill, after elaborate consideration and public hearings, was condemned by the Judiciary Committee of the House. The committee had hastily favored the bill last year, and it had passed the House, failing in the Senate. This year, the House committee has changed its attitude. Early in April, the House Committee on Labor decided to hold the eight-hour bill over to the next session of Congress, meanwhile inviting from Secretary Cortelyou a report upon the probable effect the adoption of the measure would have upon various interests. A bill was pending to provide a permanent board of arbitration to settle disputes between labor and capital; but it was opposed by organizations of labor on the one hand and of employers on the other, and was accordingly abandoned. Regarding the admission of new States, the Republicans had reached an agreement to favor the admission of Oklahoma and Indian Territory as one State, under the name of Oklahoma, and to unite and admit Arizona and New Mexico, under the name of Arizona. This proposal had the full approval of the President, but was not agreeable to various Territorial interests, and it was not certain whether final action would be taken in the closing days of the session or would be deferred until next year.

*Trust
Inquiries.
(7) Beef.*

Two important inquiries are pending as respects the working of trusts that directly concern the cost of living of the ordinary family. One of these is the beef trust, and the other is the anthracite-coal trust. The beef inquiry is being conducted by the Department of Commerce and Labor, under personal direction of Mr. James R. Garfield, the able and zealous head of the Bureau of Corporations. It is proceeding in response to a House resolution introduced by Mr. Martin, of South Dakota, to whom it seemed that the disparity between the high price of beef and the relatively low price obtained by the farmers for their cattle might be due to the methods of an artificial monopoly. Several years ago, it was alleged that half-a-dozen great meat-packing companies were working under agreements which eliminated competition and enabled them to dictate the buying price of cattle and the selling price of beef. Attorney-General Knox obtained an injunction against this combination in 1902. Recent price phenomena have a peculiar and suspicious appearance, and in any case, the thorough investigation now undertaken can do no harm, and is likely to be of practical

value. The cattlemen of the West and the beef-consumers of the East are alike interested in knowing why the difference is so great between what the farmer gets for his cattle and what the householder pays for his meat.

Of all the trusts and combinations in this country, the one against which it can be most indubitably alleged that it exists for the sake of directly enhancing the price of an article of common use and necessity is the anthracite-coal trust. The anthracite area of Pennsylvania is small, and it has come under the control of a group of railroads that have improperly exceeded their functions as common carriers by monopolizing and trafficking in an important commodity. They regulate the output of anthracite by agreement, assigning a fixed percentage to each road, and they prescribe the prices which all anthracite-users must pay. They have of late maintained excessive prices for coal, to the inconvenience and loss of some millions of people. Last month the Supreme Court, in deciding an appealed case, reversed a New York federal judge and declared that the Interstate Commerce Commission could compel the anthracite railroads to answer questions, produce books, and furnish desired information regarding the methods by which the coal business is controlled. This decision has a wide and important bearing.

Aftermath of "Northern Securities." The Northern Securities Company, having lost its case in the Supreme Court some weeks ago, as recorded in these pages last month, was on the point of proceeding by a *pro rata* plan to distribute its holdings of Great Northern and Northern Pacific stock when a new phase in the litigation was entered upon. The combination of railway interests known as the Harriman system wished to have returned to it intact the immense block of Northern Pacific stock which it had exchanged for the Northern Securities shares. The plan decided upon by Mr. J. J. Hill and a majority of the directors of the Northern Securities Company would give the Harriman interests a large amount of Great Northern stock and effectually deprive them of the control of the Northern Pacific. A brilliant array of legal talent on both sides appeared in the Circuit Court at St. Paul to argue the question whether or not the court ought to intervene and prevent Mr. Hill and the directors from carrying out their plan. Mr. Elihu Root spoke for the defense. Attorney-General Knox also opposed such intervention, and after some days' consideration the court decided against the Harriman motion. It

was expected that the plan as decided upon would be carried out with little further delay. If the Harriman argument had prevailed, the Northern Pacific Railroad would have passed into the hands of those who already control the Central and Southern Pacific lines, and thus—with the Burlington system half owned by the same interests—the attempt to restore competition by breaking up the Northern Securities Company would have had the curious result of producing a still larger combination of transcontinental lines. Many railroad men of experience feel that an advantageous check has been placed upon the too rapid process of unifying railway control in this country.

Opening of the St. Louis Fair.

The cession of the Louisiana country to the United States was accomplished by virtue of a treaty signed at Paris on April 30, 1803. At St. Louis, on April 30, 1903, were held the dedication ceremonies of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, when President Roosevelt made an address worthy of so memorable an occasion. The date set for the opening of the great exposition was April 30 of the present year. The vastness of this world's fair is hard, indeed, to realize. Those who intend to visit it should not fail to read Mr. Saunders' article in this number of the REVIEW. Those who had not intended to make the journey to St. Louis will, in a multitude of cases, change their minds when they have read Mr. Saunders' succinct account of the scope of this wonderful exposition, and of the facilities that St. Louis has provided for the transportation and care of visitors. A profitable way to study the exposition will be to consider it as a great series of object-lessons in the general and detailed progress of the country during the past century and in our history. In many other respects, as well as in sheer magnitude, this exposition marks a great advance over any of its predecessors, whether American or European. In addition to Mr. Saunders' article, we publish a statement from Mr. Ives, the art director, relative to the scope of his department. St. Louis was fortunate in having among her own citizens the one man probably in all the world most competent to create the art exhibit of an international exposition. The Centennial at Philadelphia, in 1876, exerted a profound influence upon the progress of the United States in art, manufactures, and various other directions. The Columbian Exposition, at Chicago, eleven years ago, gave another great impulse to our development in architecture, and in a hundred other aspects. In like manner, the St. Louis Exposition is destined to

have its deep historical significance and prove of incalculable value, especially to the millions of people in the prosperous Southwest.

A New Generation of Americans. The permanent census bureau, without making a fresh enumeration from year to year, can from various data form accurate estimates of the growth of our population; and the figures lately announced indicate, at the present time, almost exactly 80,000,000 people in the United States, not counting the inhabitants of the annexed islands. When the Centennial was held, in 1876, our population was in round figures about 45,000,000. Eleven years ago, when the Chicago Exposition was held, it had grown to 67,000,000. We have gained 13,000,000 since that time, and a great part of this increase is to be found in the States west of the Mississippi River. The boys who were ten years old at the time of the Columbian Exposition have now attained the years of legal manhood, and will vote for a President of the United States in November. Thus, the people who in a *blasé* spirit think of world's fairs as rather frequent and tiresome lose sight altogether of the fact that for millions of American young people the great enterprise so bravely carried out at St. Louis will be both novel and stimulating in the highest degree. It must also be remembered that the past decade has seen more advance in arts and inventions than any preceding period, and that the St. Louis fair is startlingly up-to-date.

The Fair and Western Civilization. On its idealistic and educational sides, furthermore, as well as in its purely material aspects, the St. Louis fair is to be thoroughgoing, and is sure to contribute much to the best elements in our civilization. To have created this marvelous focus of beauty and instruction, ought to react favorably upon the ideals of the city of St. Louis itself. The World's fair year should mark the beginning of a better era in local municipal life, and in the government of the State of Missouri. Reports last month were to the effect that Mr. Folk, the courageous prosecutor of evil-doers, bids fair to triumph over his enemies and secure the Democratic nomination for the Missouri governorship. The adjoining States of Missouri and Kansas are strikingly unlike in the characteristics of their people, but they are both just now under some reproach for recent political conditions quite unworthy of States so intelligent and prosperous. A United States Senator from Kansas, Burton by name, was last month tried, convicted, and sentenced for having made corrupt use of his official position at Washington. Under

pretense of acting as an attorney, he had taken pay for endeavoring to secure the favor of the Postal Department for a concern which had been excluded from the mails for doing a fraudulent business.

Politics and Morals in the West. The Republican legislature of Kansas, when in 1901 it elected Burton to the United States Senate, did not suppose he would be guilty of just this kind of disgraceful offense; but it was well enough known throughout the commonwealth that he was not a man fitted by any test to represent a great State in the Senate. It is high time for the plain people to find their courage, as against the political machines, and to denounce the sending to the United States Senate of men not held in high esteem for ability and character. A Nebraska Senator, Dietrich, was lately put on trial for having made traffic out of post-office appointments; but the charges against him were dismissed by the court on the ground that they pertained to the period after he was elected Senator but before he was sworn in. It is important to add that Senator Dietrich's case came before a committee of the Senate made up of old and respected members like Mr. Hoar, of Massachusetts, and Mr. Cockrell, of Missouri, and that their report last month stated that they had investigated thoroughly and had found Senator Dietrich neither legally nor morally guilty of the offenses which had been charged against him. The country wishes to think well of its men in public life, and Nebraska is to be congratulated upon this removal of all stain from the name of one of her Senators. The great State of Illinois, for the southern part of which St. Louis is the metropolitan city, is always turbulent, and sometimes violent and corrupt, in its politics; but reports from Chicago indicate a steady improvement in some phases, at least, of municipal life. Elsewhere in this number will be found an interesting article from Mr. Yarros, a well-known Chicago journalist, upon the recent remarkable results of the referendum on the question of the future of the Chicago street railroads.

The Great Anglo-French Compromise. In spite of the fact that a war is in progress in the far East, it remains true that the general trend is toward the peaceful settlement of disputes and the establishment of friendly relations between the principal governments of the world. Among many recent evidences of such a tendency, the most notable, perhaps, is to be found in the agreement signed on April 7 between France and England. Without tedious proceedings be-

fore arbitrators or in meetings of joint high commissioners, but by quiet and almost unobserved negotiations, the brilliant French foreign minister, M. Delcassé, and the English foreign secretary, Lord Lansdowne, have settled various questions of importance relating to the colonial interests of the two countries. France gives up her exclusive pretensions to fishing rights on the so-called "French Shore" of Newfoundland, and will receive an indemnity to be determined by arbitration. England recognizes France's claims and ambitions in Morocco; and the French empire in northern Africa will thus probably soon extend westward to the Atlantic. The French, on their part, agree not to create a fortress opposite Gibraltar. In return for England's approval of the French occupation of Morocco, France finally accepts as a fixed fact the British occupation of Egypt, and consents to the use of funds accumulated in the Egyptian treasury for public works under Lord Cromer's direction. The British Government gives fresh guaranty of the neutrality of the Suez Canal, and for a period of thirty years England and France mutually promise equal trading privileges in Egypt and Morocco. France gains a desired bit of territory in West Africa which makes her possessions there more compact and better connected. Certain disputes in the New Hebrides about land are to be settled by a joint commission, England abandons her opposition to French economic policy in Madagascar, and, finally, the boundaries between British and French possessions on the confines of Siam are more clearly defined. Thus, it will be seen that the agreement is a widely comprehensive one and exceedingly creditable to the statesmanship of both countries.

English Politics.

The domestic situation in England last month reflected less credit upon the government than its achievements in the sphere of foreign policy. Mr. Austen Chamberlain's new budget proposals indicate a shortage in most of the usual sources of revenue, and make further increase in the rate of the income tax. The by-elections continue to show marked gains for the Liberals. In spite of numerous and important secessions from the ministerial support, Premier Balfour still has a working majority in the Commons and does not propose to dissolve Parliament this year. The election for members of the London County Council has resulted in a great victory for the Liberals, or so-called "Progressives;" and various indications point to a sweeping Liberal success whenever the country may have a chance to pass upon the national situation.

Sinking of the "Petropavlovsk."

Port Arthur still claims the center of the stage in the far East. Up to the middle of April, Admiral Togo had made seven attacks on the forts and Russian squadron, and by April 20 had almost succeeded in bottling up the enemy's ships. The two dramatic incidents of the later attempts had been the gallant repulse of the Japanese torpedo fleet on March 27, chiefly through the bravery of Lieutenant Krinizki (a Pole), of the Russian torpedo boat *Silni*, and the tragic sinking of the battleship *Petropavlovsk* on April 13, with Admiral Makaroff and eight hundred men. Lieutenant Krinizki boldly attacked the advancing Japanese, and succeeded in sinking one of their steamers where they did not want it sunk. The destruction of the first-class battleship *Petropavlovsk*, one of the finest in the Russian navy, was the most tragic event of the war, so far, and a crushing confirmation of the terrible effectiveness of the torpedo as an arm of warfare. The Russians at first claimed that one of their own mines was responsible for the disaster, but it has been all but proved that a Japanese torpedo did the work. Early on the morning of April 13, the Japanese admiral set his trap for the foe, baiting it with a Japanese squadron of torpedo boats and other small vessels, stationing himself, with his great fighting force, in the distance, out of sight, but not out of reach of the wireless telegraph, waiting the signal to come on and finish the Russians as soon as they had left the

shelter of the shore batteries. Each time that the Russians returned to the inner harbor upon preceding encounters, the Japanese admiral noticed that they followed a certain fixed course, presumably to avoid the mines they had laid. The decoying Japanese squadron, under cover of the mist, deliberately went over this Russian course, and either laid mines or stationed their

LIEUTENANT KRINIZKI, OF THE RUSSIAN NAVY.

submarine torpedo boat at some point over which the Russian admiral must pass on his return. The gallant Makaroff sallied forth with his battleships and cruisers. If the morning mist had not lifted earlier than usual, he would have been decoyed far enough for Admiral Togo's ships to intercept him. The Russian cruiser *Bayan* was beating the decoy

A JAPANESE VESSEL LAYING MINES.—From *l'Illustration* (Paris).

squadron when Makaroff realized the danger, and the Russians turned about and made for the harbor. When at the entrance, a terrific explosion shook the *Petropavlovsk*, and she heeled to one side, filling and sinking in two and one-half minutes from the time of contact with the deadly mine or torpedo.

Admiral Makaroff, the "Cossack of the Sea," with eight hundred men, including Rear-Admiral Molas and the famous painter Verestchagin, died like rats in a hole. The Grand Duke Cyril, cousin of the Czar, was seriously, perhaps fatally, injured. Russia could have spared five battleships better than she could the brave Makaroff, whose usefulness as a fighter, inventor, and authority on naval matters has been recognized the world over. A Russian torpedo-boat destroyer was intercepted by the Japanese and sunk, and the battleship *Pobieda* injured so that it was with difficulty that she reached the protection of the forts. Commander Ogasawara, of the Japanese naval staff, declares, in a tribute to the late Russian admiral, that the Japanese navy owes much to the writings of its dead enemy. There was something more than tragic about the death of the great pictorial re-

porter, the painter Verestchagin. "On our ship," says a survivor of the disaster, "was an old man with a beautiful white beard who had been good to our men. He had a book in his hand, and seemed to be writing—perhaps sketching. He was Verestchagin, the painter." The sketch in the *Review* this month presents an estimate of the man by one who knew him.

Thanks to wireless telegraphy, almost before the smoke of the battle had cleared away the waiting world knew of the sinking of the Russian warship and the loss of her admiral. From a dispatch boat in the Gulf of Pe-chi-li, one hundred miles to the British port of Wei-Hai-Wei, and thence over two continents and under a great ocean, the news sped to the American people. The wireless-telegraph system has played an important part in recording the events of the war. Admiral Togo has used the wireless method with wonderful success, and one of the most dramatic applications of it was to lure out Admiral Makaroff when the decoying squadron had laid the mines and then notify the Japanese admiral that it was time to come on and intercept the fleeing enemy.

Makaroff and Verestchagin.

Success of Wireless Telegraphy.

*Russia and
the Wireless
Method.*

No one is anxious to add to the embarrassment of the Russian Government at this time, but it may be confidently asserted that the rest of the world will vigorously and promptly repel any attempt to execute Viceroy Alexieff's latest pronouncement. On April 15, he announced that, in case neutral steamers having on board correspondents "who might communicate war news to the enemy by means of perfected apparatus not being yet foreseen by existing conventions" should be discovered "in the zone of operations of the Russian fleet," the correspondents would be "looked upon as spies, and the steamers furnished with wireless telegraph seized as prizes of war." The viceroy, no doubt, had in mind the Anglo-American arrangement by which a newspaper in London and one in New York are served with news by the wireless method. It is scarcely conceivable that the Russian Government would attempt to carry out such a threat,—indeed, it has already been announced that the Imperial Government does not contemplate any immediate action in the matter. Newspaper correspondents, no matter what method they may use for the transmission of news, are not spies, and, according to the agreement subscribed to by Russia and the rest of the world at the Hague Peace Conference, these correspondents (provided they have proper credentials and behave themselves) are entitled to be treated as prisoners of war. If the correspondent in question were on land, Admiral Alexieff might make him submit to the censor; but even if he were willing, the correspondent could not get to Port Arthur to be censored. On a neutral vessel, outside the limits of military jurisdiction, and gathering news by simply observing events as they occur, the correspondent is entirely beyond the reach of the exasperation of the Russian viceroy. A belligerent cannot extend his jurisdiction indefinitely by mere proclamation; like a blockade, it must be made effective. The Russian viceroy is in no position at present to get at the obnoxious correspondent, much less to hang him.

*As to the
Torpedo.*

Whether or not the *Petropavlovsk* was destroyed by a Japanese torpedo, there is no doubt of the terrible effectiveness of this arm of warfare as used by the Japanese. The Mikado's navy was among the foremost in recognizing the effectiveness of torpedo warfare, and almost all the injury the Japanese have inflicted on the Russian fleet has been by means of torpedoes. The *Variag* is the only large Russian warship that is positively known to have gone down under gunfire. All the qualities necessary for the successful use of

MAJOR-GENERAL PFLUG.

(Chief of the Russian general staff in the far East.)

torpedoes, as pointed out by Mr. Hudson Maxim in his article in this number of the *Review*, are possessed by the Japanese. They have intelligence, dash, and the Oriental indifference to life. They are light and agile. They are not appalled by the risk of experiments with novel devices; and, as they are comparatively fresh in the field of naval warfare, they have nothing to unlearn of old naval traditions. So far, the Japanese navy seems to have sustained comparatively little injury. Some of Admiral Togo's vessels were damaged during the attacks on Port Arthur, and it is reported that these have put back to the Sasebo arsenal for repairs; but the two new cruisers *Nisshin* and *Kasuga*, which came all around the world to join the fleet, joined in the later bombardments of Port Arthur. The *Variag*, by the way, is being raised and repaired by the Japanese.

*The War
Situation
on Land.*

What the world knows about the naval operations in the far East seems to be in inverse proportion to what it knows about the developments on land. Reports of battles and skirmishes are made and denied. The estimates of the forces vary by the hundred thousand. It is safe to believe, however, that up

to the middle of April, the land campaigns of both combatants were almost exclusively preparatory to what is generally believed will be a decisive battle, probably at some point in Manchuria, and not to be fought until both sides are well prepared. The Japanese have made thorough and complete their occupation of Korea. For centuries the Island Empire has wanted the fertile peninsula, and now, in less than two months, with no serious battle and the loss of only a few men, she has it in her hands. With their base still at Ping-Yang, the Japanese have advanced two of their armies steadily northward, until their main line is now encamped along the southern bank of the Yalu River. The occupation of Ping-Yang on the west, and of Wansan on the east, brings the Japanese forces practically to the Manchurian border. Late in March, there were (according to the differing estimates from St. Petersburg and Tokio) from twenty thousand to fifty thousand Russians in northern Korea. By April 1, these had retired northward over the Yalu. Several weeks later, a general Russian advance southward, again over the Yalu, was announced. The strip between the outposts of the two armies, constantly growing smaller, is swept by the cavalry of both, General Meshtchenko, with at least five thousand Cossacks, probably holding the "whip hand." Reports of skirmishes at Anju, and at various other points along the Yalu, are made and denied. The persistent report comes from St. Petersburg that twelve thousand Japanese were defeated, with great loss, in an attempt to land east of Anju, on April 10. It does not seem, however, that the Russians have made any very serious efforts to obstruct the advance of the Japanese. The latter are perhaps waiting for milder weather before striking. They are making their preparations with great thoroughness and deliberation.

IN THE CONSCIOUSNESS OF RIGHT AND STRENGTH.

(Russia's attitude, as shown in a cartoon in the *Niva*, the illustrated weekly of St. Petersburg.)

*Russian
Movements.*

General Kuropatkin is still gathering the great army with which he hopes to drive the Japanese from the Asiatic mainland. The peculiar conditions of climate which the Russian and Japanese commanders have to face are described by Mr. Frank Waldo on another page of this issue of the REVIEW. As the winter loosens its grip, however, a decisive conflict seems materially nearer. Of General Kuropatkin's plans, the world knows provokingly little—which is perhaps to be expected. The capacity of the Trans-Siberian Railroad to transport troops and munitions of war is so variously stated that there is no means of judging how many men are now with the Russian commander in the far

East. The military correspondent of the London *Times* discounts all reports which claim that more than a thousand men are transported daily by the railroad. Not more than four trains a day, he points out, are likely to reach Harbin, and the general experience with the passenger-carrying capacity of such a railroad would in-

Yingkow or Newchwang. The last-named town is a treaty port, in a neutral country, but it has been partially fortified and occupied by the Russians, who evidently regard it as within the fighting zone. The question of the rights of neutrals at this port—at the mouth of the Liao River—has already threatened to cause international complications.

*Development
of Russian
Plans.*

Despite the long list of disasters to her arms in the far East, Russian determination seems to be unshaken. It is coming to be recognized (as shown in our symposium of Russian opinion in this number of the REVIEW) that the military reverses are likely to bring about significant changes in the internal affairs of the empire. Outwardly, however, preparations go on steadily for a decisive land battle, which it is hoped and expected will retrieve the losses on sea. Radical changes are being made, also, in naval plans. Admiral Alexieff has been severely criticised ever since the outbreak of hostilities, not only for so misinterpreting Japan's position as to make the war inevitable, but because of his disposition of the Russian naval and land forces. Vice-Admiral Skridloff, who has been appointed to succeed the late Admiral Makaroff, has criticised the viceroy for separating the Russian fleets at Port Arthur, Vladivostok, and Chemulpho; for permitting the only chart of the Port Arthur mines to be blown up with the ill-fated *Yenisei*, and for general slackness. And now the news comes that Admiral Alexieff has tendered his resignation to the Czar. Just what will be done by the new naval commander remains to be seen. Russia's fine Baltic fleet, it is reported, will sail for the far East in July. The Vladivostok squadron, which consists of four fast cruisers and one transport, has been of little or no service up to the present. The latest news from it is that Captain Reitzenstein, who commanded as successor to Admiral Stachelberg, has now joined the Port Arthur fleet as captain of the cruiser *Askold*. Vladivostok is reported to be in serious need of provisions and war supplies.

*Japanese
Plans.*

What Japan is really aiming at, and what her generals are planning, are facts the world would like to know, but as yet can only speculate upon. The Japanese Government is not talking, but is evidently making few mistakes. Its official announcements are briefer, even, than the concise reports of its redoubtable Admiral Togo. A "prominent Japanese statesman," however, is reported by the London *Times* to have outlined Japan's position. A Japanese editor in New York, who is closely

VICED-ADMIRAL SKRIDLOFF.

(Who succeeds the late Admiral Makaroff.)

dicte that eight hundred every twenty-four hours is a fairly accurate estimate. German military critics insist that three hundred thousand men and one hundred thousand horses (Russia has claimed for a month that she already has this number in the far East) would require at least sixteen hundred tons of food a day, and as a Russian military train normally includes only twenty-five carriages and the full capacity of each truck is eight tons, this would mean that eight trains a day are necessary for food alone—to say nothing of the transportation of men and munitions of war. All of this shows us that the Russians must be living off the country to a certain extent, or that the Russian commander has overstated his forces. Viceroy Alexieff has defined the limits of the war field. It is the Mongolian frontier to its intersection with the Liao River, thence to Sin-min-tin, thence along the railroad to Kaupangtze, and thence along the railroad to the coast at

MAP SHOWING THE FIELD OF OPERATIONS IN THE FAR EAST, AND A PORTION OF ENGLAND ON THE SAME SCALE.

In Japan itself, the population is a unit on the question of the war. A special session of the Diet has provided for additional taxation, which will raise \$31,000,000 annually. The banks are authorized to raise money,—which the government may borrow by a scheme of saving debentures,—with lottery drawings. There is also an increase of duty on sugar, silk, kerosene, and alcoholic beverages, and it is reported that even the most poorly paid of government employees have cheerfully consented to a 20 per cent. reduction in their salaries, for the war fund. The semi-centennial celebration of the visit of Commodore Perry to Tokio, a graphic description of which we present on another page of this REVIEW, has been celebrated with enthusiasm throughout Japan. Commodore Perry is the only foreigner to whom a monument has been erected in the

BARON KODAMA.

(Commander-in-chief of the Japanese army.)

in touch with official life in the empire, puts the matter in the same way, so it may be worth recording. Japan does not desire territory. She is not even fighting for markets; but she realizes that, once in Korea, Russia might reach out for Japan itself. The Mikado's task is to halt the Russian march; to break the Czar's prestige in the far East; to open Korea to the world,—not to annex it. His aim has been to destroy the Russian fleet, perhaps to take the two points Port Arthur and Vladivostok, and there to await developments. Nothing will tempt Japan to invade Siberia. There will be no imitation of Napoleon's march to Moscow. China is to be left neutral, but Japan's influence must be paramount. Whether a decisive land battle will take place or not, is uncertain. All this was understood some years ago, and the Japanese Government relies on the alliance with England, and on the fair dealing of the United States, to prevent a repetition of the former European coalition which deprived her of the fruits of her victory over China. The terms of peace upon which she will insist will be acceptable, she believes, to both Great Britain and the United States. All of which, if really true, would show that the Mikado and his advisers have very shrewdly read the signs of the times.

THE MONUMENT TO COMMODORE PERRY AT YOKOHAMA.

empire. One of the features of the celebration was the founding of the Perry Memorial Relief Fund, to which Americans and Japanese are generously contributing, for the relief of destitute families of Japanese soldiers and sailors.

*Unrest
in Korea.*

What Marquis Ito, special high commissioner of Japan, succeeded in doing in Korea has been almost undone by the burning of the Imperial Palace, at Seoul, on April 14. The fire is believed to have been the work of the disaffected elements which oppose submission to Japan. Marquis Ito persuaded the Emperor to initiate reforms in the educational and governmental systems of

Korea. Japan, he informed the Korean Emperor, would lend Korea 5,000,000 yen (about \$2,500,000) to place the finances on a sound basis. With the burning of the palace, however, in which the national archives were lost, affairs were thrown into a rather critical condition. The fire is regarded as a sign of Buddha's wrath against the ruling family, and rioting is reported in the interior. If the Emperor car-

*The British
in Tibet.*

It is the misfortune of Tibet to be across the line of Russia's southern and England's northern march. This mysterious country in central Asia (about as large as France and Germany combined) touches British India or its dependencies, and lies directly south of eastern Turkestan. The British claim that the Russians are intriguing to absorb Tibet, and that the safety and progress of their interests in the valley of the Yang-tse-Kiang demand that the head-waters of the river, in Tibet, be kept free from Russian control. For their part, the Russians insist that the British are preparing to establish a protectorate over Tibet. A year or so ago, the Indian government invited Tibet to send representatives to a conference for the settlement of certain treaty misunderstandings, and to prevent further border depredations. The Tibetans refused to participate in the conference. A "mission," therefore, was sent into the country, with a large military escort and six cannon, under the command of Colonel Younghusband. The Tibetans were informed that the expedition would not attempt to reach Lassa. At Guru, about halfway from the British Indian border to Lassa, while Colonel Younghusband was attempting to disarm a body of Tibetans, the Sikh troops, under British command, attempted to capture a body of the natives. A fight ensued, in which the English fired upon the Tibetans with their Maxims. The Tibetans, armed only with swords, suffered great loss. The British halted at Gyangze, where a conference is being arranged with the authorities at Lassa.

*Russia
and Tibet.*

Lassa is the residence of the Grand Lama, the head of the Buddhist faith. He possesses the alleged secrets and sacred writings of Buddhism, and heretofore the Tibetans have maintained the absolute inviolability of their capital, even from the Chinese, whose emperor they acknowledge as suzerain. It is really the game of England against Russia. Very quietly, while the rest of the world is busy watching her armies in Manchuria, Russia is advancing southeast over Mongolia and extending her influence to the very gates of the Tibetan capital. There are rumors of an expedition to Yarkand, in Chinese Turkestan, which is the starting-point of the trade routes across the Hindu-Kush Mountains into north-western Tibet. These movements have determined the British Indian government to set in motion a counteracting influence. The real overlord of Tibet—China—is unfortunately unable to defend its claims.

EUROPE: "If you don't stop juggling there, we will all come down!"

From *Caras y Caretas* (Buenos Ayres, Argentina).

ries out his plan of rebuilding the palace on an elaborate scale, it will increase the taxation on the already impoverished and restive provinces. It is announced from Seoul that British and American mining operations will not be interfered with; but the Rev. Wilbur Shearer, presiding elder of the Methodist mission in Korea, declares that missionary work will have to be reconstructed at the end of the war. In the north especially, missions have suffered severely.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From March 21 to April 30, 1904.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

March 22.—The Senate, in executive session, ratifies the treaty with Cuba, embodying the Platt amendments....The House debates and amends the Post-Office appropriation bill.

March 24.—The Senate passes the Indian appropriation bill....In the House, an amendment to the Post-

April 8.—The House passes the bill extending the coastwise shipping laws to the Philippines and the bill granting government aid to the Lewis and Clark Exposition.

April 9.—The Senate passes the Philippine shipping and the Lewis and Clark Exposition bills....In the House, Mr. Cockran (Dem., N. Y.) attacks the old-age pension order.

April 11.—In the Senate, the Democrats, led by Mr. Gorman (Dem., Md.), continue their demands for an investigation of the Post-Office Department.

April 12.—The Senate passes the Post-Office appropriation bill, having voted down the Democratic amendments....In the House, the McCall investigating committee on "charges against members" holds all members of Congress innocent of wrongdoing in connection with Post-Office affairs.

April 13.—The Senate considers the bill providing for the government of the Panama Canal zone....The House takes up the bill relating to Philippine railroads.

April 14.—The House passes the Philippine railroad bill.

April 15.—The Senate passes a bill providing a form of government for the Panama Canal zone.

April 18.—The House passes the general deficiency bill, adding, as a rider, the bill to strengthen the Chinese exclusion law.

April 19.—The House passes the bill for the admission of the two new States formed from Oklahoma, Indian Territory, Arizona, and New Mexico.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

March 21.—A caucus of Republican members of Congress chooses thirty-four members of the Congressional campaign committee....The House Committee on the Judiciary votes in favor of the impeachment of Judge Charles Swayne, of the Federal Circuit Court of Florida.

March 22.—Missouri Republicans choose delegates-

Office appropriation bill to secure an investigation of the department, offered by Mr. Williams (Dem., Miss.), is defeated.

March 25. The Senate takes up the District of Columbia appropriation bill....The House passes the Post-Office appropriation bill.

March 26.—The House begins consideration of the sundry civil appropriation bill.

March 28.—The Senate passes the District of Columbia appropriation bill.

March 30.—In connection with the introduction of the Post-Office appropriation bill in the Senate, Democratic members demand an investigation of the department.

April 1.—The House passes the sundry civil appropriation bill and sends the army appropriation bill back to conference.

April 5.—The House passes the Military Academy appropriation bill.

April 6.—The Senate adopts amendments to the Post-Office appropriation bill relating to the pay and duties of rural carriers....The House sends the fortifications appropriation bill back to conference.

April 7.—The Senate devotes its session to services in memory of Senator Hanna....The House takes up the bill extending the coastwise shipping laws to the Philippines.

A RECENT PORTRAIT OF COUNT LAMSDORFF, THE RUSSIAN MINISTER OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS.

INTERIOR OF A RUSSIAN HOSPITAL TRAIN.

at-large to the national convention, and instruct them for Roosevelt....President Roosevelt appoints General Davis governor of the Panama Canal zone and issues instructions to the Isthmian Commission.

March 28.—United States Senator Joseph R. Burton, of Kansas, is found guilty, at St. Louis, of accepting fees to use his influence with the Post-Office Department to prevent a fraud order being issued against the Rialto Grain and Securities Company,—the first instance of the kind in the history of the United States.

April 4.—The United States Supreme Court decides that the coal railroads must answer the questions asked and produce the contracts required by the Interstate Commerce Commission.

April 5.—Chicago votes by an overwhelming majority for the municipal ownership of the street railways (see page 524)....Ex-President Cleveland indorses the candidacy of Judge Alton B. Parker, of New York, for the Democratic nomination to the Presidency.

DR. A. S. DRAPER.

(Commissioner of Education of the State of New York under the new law.)

April 6.—Pennsylvania Republicans choose delegates to the national convention instructed for Roosevelt.... United States Senator Joseph R. Burton, of Kansas, convicted of accepting fees for his influence with the Post-Office Department, is sentenced, in the United States District Court at St. Louis, to serve six months in jail and pay a fine of \$2,500.... The anti-gambling bill advocated by District Attorney Jerome, of New York, is passed by the State Legislature.

April 7.—Tennessee Republicans nominate JERRY Littleton for governor, and instruct their delegates to the national convention for Roosevelt.

April 12.—New York Republicans "direct" delegates to the national convention to use every effort to secure the nomination of Theodore Roosevelt for President.

April 14.—West Virginia and Maine Republicans instruct for Roosevelt.

April 15.—Massachusetts Republicans indorse President Roosevelt.

April 18.—New York Democrats, by a vote of 301 to 149, instruct their delegates to vote for the nomination of Judge Alton B. Parker for President.

April 19.—Pennsylvania Democrats refuse to instruct for Parker.

April 20.—Vermont Republicans instruct delegates to the national convention for Roosevelt.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

March 22.—The British Government escapes defeat in the House of Commons on a question of river drainage in Ireland by a majority of only 16 votes.... The Austrian Reichsrath adjourns.

March 23.—A special session of the Japanese Diet opens at Tokio.

March 28.—The French Chamber of Deputies, by a

vote of 316 to 269, passes the bill debarring religious orders from teaching in France.

March 31.—British revenues for the year show a net decrease of \$43,936,405 as compared with the preceding year.

April 1.—Premier Combes orders the removal of religious emblems from the courts of justice in France.

April 12.—The premier of Spain, Señor Maura, is stabbed by an anarchist at Barcelona.

April 18.—The British House of Commons, by a vote of 270 to 61, sanctions the use of Indian troops in Tibet.

April 19.—The British House of Commons, by small majorities, adopts the government's proposals for additional duties on tea and tobacco.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

March 26.—Emperor William of Germany and King Victor Emmanuel of Italy meet at Naples and express adherence to the triple alliance.

March 31.—It is announced that Italy and Austria have concluded an agreement regarding affairs in the Balkans.... The First Civil Tribunal of the Seine, at Paris, decides the suit of Colombia against the Panama Canal Company in favor of the defendants.

April 8.—An Anglo-French colonial treaty, covering all questions in dispute, is signed in London.... A Turco-Bulgarian convention is signed at Constantinople.

April 9.—Lord Lansdowne informs the Russian ambassador to Great Britain that his government will be glad to reopen negotiations with Russia looking to a settlement of all matters in dispute.

April 12.—Chancellor von Bülow speaks in the German Reichstag of Germany's desire to maintain the peace of the world.

April 15.—France and Great Britain protest against duties on textile fabrics in Japan's new tariff.

THE LATE WILLIAM B. GRACE.

(Twice elected mayor of New York City before its consolidation with Brooklyn.)

April 16.—In an opinion rendered to the President, Attorney-General Knox holds that the Chinese exclusion laws of the United States will remain in force after the present treaty between the United States and China expires.

April 19.—The general council of the bar of England adopts a resolution favoring an Anglo-American arbitration treaty.

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

March 31.—The reply of the lower house of the Japanese Diet expresses satisfaction that war has been declared.... The Japanese occupy Anju and Ping-Yang.

March 22.—There is again severe fighting at Port Arthur; the Japanese bombard the place.... The Japanese at Anju are throwing up earthworks.

March 26.—Japanese again attempt to block entrance to Port Arthur; four Japanese are killed and nine wounded.

March 27.—Russians place Newchwang under martial law.

March 28.—Russian forces under General Mitchenkow are defeated in a sharp fight near Chongju and retire in good order.

March 30.—The Japanese Diet passes practically all the war-revenue measures advocated by the government.

March 31.—An American war charity, the Perry Memorial Relief Fund, is organized at Tokio.

April 6.—General Kuropatkin arrives at Newchwang.

April 13.—The Russian battleship *Petrovsk* is sunk by a mine or torpedo near the entrance to Port Arthur; Admiral Makaroff and more than five hundred officers and men lose their lives....The Russian torpedo-boat destroyer *Bezstrashni*, while trying to reënter Port Arthur, is cut off by Japanese destroyers and sunk....The Russian battleship *Pobleda* is injured by a mine.

THE LATE SIR EDWIN ARNOLD.

(Author of "The Light of Asia.")

April 15.—Port Arthur is shelled by the Japanese fleet for three hours.

April 19.—Admiral Alexieff asks to be relieved of the viceroyalty in the far East.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

March 20.—The American Hawaiian steamship *Nebraska* completes a voyage of 12,724 nautical miles, from San Diego, Cal., to New York, steaming the entire distance with crude California oil as her only fuel.

March 30.—F. Augustus Heinze is fined \$30,000 in Montana for contempt of court in refusing to permit federal inspectors to enter one of his copper mines to examine the Michael Davitt claim.

March 31.—Tibetans are repulsed by the British force under Colonel Younghusband.

April 1.—Operators and miners in the central coal fields of Pennsylvania come to an agreement by which the men accept a reduction of 6 per cent.

April 11.—German troops near Okahandja, in Southwest Africa, defeat 3,000 Hereros, after a fight of eight hours, losing four killed and eleven wounded.

April 18.—The explosion of a twelve-inch gun on the United States battleship *Missouri*, while engaged in target practice off Pensacola, Fla., kills five officers and twenty-seven enlisted men.

April 14.—The Korean imperial palace at Seoul is destroyed by fire.

April 15.—It is announced at Pittsburg that Andrew

Carnegie has established a fund of \$5,000,000 to provide for those who risk their lives for others, and for the widows and orphans of those who sacrifice their lives for others.

April 19.—Fire in the business district of Toronto causes losses estimated at \$12,000,000.

April 30.—All the state railways of Hungary are tied up by a strike.

OBITUARY.

March 21.—Ex-Mayor William R. Grace, of New York City, 72.

March 24.—Sir Edwin Arnold, the English poet and Oriental scholar, 73.

March 25.—Josef Rebeck, conductor of the Philharmonic Orchestra of Berlin, 60....Prof. Carl Schumann, curator of the Royal Botanical Museum, Berlin, 49.

March 26.—Cornelia G. Willis, widow of N. P. Willis, the New England poet, 79.

March 27.—Gen. Thomas O. Osborne, formerly United States minister to Argentina, 75....Thomas Lyman Greene, the financial writer, 53.

March 29.—Gen. William Henry Payne, a distinguished Confederate officer, 74....Burton N. Harrison, secretary to Jefferson Davis during the Civil War, 68....Prof. A. B. Arnold, classical scholar and translator, 85.

April 1.—Mrs. Abby Morton Diaz, a well-known writer and reformer, 83....Guy Wetmore Carryl, poet and editor, 81....Ernest E. Russell, formerly editor of *Public Opinion*, 44.

April 2.—John A. Peters, ex-chief justice of the Maine Supreme Court, 82.

April 3.—Rev. William Ruff, D.D., a professor of Franklin and Marshall College and editor of the *Reformed Church Review*, 65....Princess Edward of Saxe-Weimar, 77.

April 5.—Miss Frances Power Cobbe, the English author and philanthropist, 81....Dr. William Latham, of Indiana, the oldest teacher of the deaf in the United States, 89.

April 7.—Thomas M. Green, a well-known Kentucky editor and historian, 67....Ex-Congressman Timothy J. Campbell, of New York, 64.

April 8.—Walter Lee Brown, a well-known chemist, of Evanston, Ill., 50....Father John McQuaid, a well-known American Jesuit, 78....Dennis C. Richnor, United States district attorney, of Utah, 65.

April 9.—Former Queen Isabella of Spain, 74.

April 11.—James W. Hinkley, for several years chairman of the New York Democratic State Committee, 54.

April 12.—Prof. Egbert C. Smyth, of Andover Theological Seminary, 74.

April 13.—Vassili Verestchagin, the Russian painter, 63 (see page 545)....Julian Sturgis, the author, 55.

April 14.—Cardinal Pietro G. M. Celestia, archbishop of Palermo, Italy, 90.

April 16.—George A. Martin, editor of the *New England Farmer*, 73.

April 17.—Samuel Smiles, author of "Self-Help," 92.

April 18.—Sir Henry Thompson, Bart., the distinguished English surgeon, 84.

FOREIGN CARTOONS ON CURRENT TOPICS.

THE TIBETAN BURGLARY.—From *Jugend* (Berlin).

THE war that is raging in the far East, where Japan and Russia are contending for the control of Korea, has, naturally enough, diminished the amount of attention that otherwise would have been bestowed upon the remarkable expedition of the British government of India into the mysterious land of Tibet. Furthermore, but for their preoccupation in Manchuria and on the Yellow Sea the Russians would be much more outspoken than they have appeared to be about this British movement. It is reported, however, that they are now moving by way of Chinese Turkestan toward the Tibetan boundary, and that they do not propose to allow the English to steal a march upon them in those altitudinous regions which form the "roof of the world." The German cartoon at the top

of this page represents both England and Russia as burglars who happen to be entering the house of the Grand Lama simultaneously from opposite sides and flash their dark lanterns in each other's faces. The press of India has devoted a great deal of attention to the expedition, and we publish on this page two cartoons from the *Hindi Punch*, of Calcutta. India in the native press, is represented as a tiger; the yak stands for Tibet.

"TO LASSA."

THE TIBETAN YAK: "Back, I say! I bar all further advances!"

From *Hindi Punch* (Calcutta).

PROTESTING TOO MUCH!

BRUIN: "I say, where the dickens are you taking Master Stripes to?"

LEO: "To Tibet—to the Land of the Lamas!"

BRUIN: "Yes, and what for, pray? Do you know, I've had an eye, too, on that land these many years."

LEO: "Your eye is not my eye. I guess what you mean. But I'm only going there for trade and commerce. Do you see?"

BRUIN: "Ah !!!"

(The Tibet mission is represented as a political and not a military expedition.)

From *Hindi Punch* (Calcutta).

A MEETING.

1. The White G. H. Reid (with dog), whose government demanded that the Australian mail boats should have white stokers exclusively, and who adopted the educational test now in use by the Australian government for the exclusion of colored immigrants from New South Wales. (This gentleman is temporarily dead.)

2. The Black Reid (with dog), who now declares that the exclusion of colored labor from the stoke-holds of Australian mail boats is an outrage.

3. The Yellow Reid (with dog), who now alleges that to keep out colored aliens by an education test is a disgrace.

From the *Bulletin* (Sydney).

THEIR NEW RESIDENCE.

KING WORKINGMAN (to Queen Workingwoman): "There, my dear, that is to be our home for the future."

From *Punch* (Melbourne).

THE AUSTRALIAN FARMER (contemplating yield): "The gov'ment gives us the seed, we sets it, and there's a glorious harvest. I tell you, we're the backbone of the country, 'tis are."—From the *Bulletin* (Sydney).

THE NEW BRITISH MINER.

From the *Morning Leader* (Melbourne).

BETWEEN THE DEVIL AND THE DEEP SEA.—From the *South African Review*.

Readers in the United States have scarcely realized the extent to which problems of race and labor have lately been absorbing attention in large portions of the British Empire. In South Africa, for example, where the underlying motive of the recent war was to get control of the gold mines of the Rand, it has been found impossible, for lack of labor, to restore prosperity to the mining interests. Accordingly, Lord Milner's Transvaal government has shocked British tradition by authorizing the importation of indentured Chinese coolies to work the mines, and these, for a term of years, will be held in slavery. The cartoon at the top of this page, from the *South African Review*, ex-

presses the opinion that prevailed. South Africa had to admit the Chinaman or take a plunge into financial ruin. Mr. Lyttelton, who has succeeded Joseph Chamberlain as colonial minister at London, has accepted the view of Lord Milner and the magnates of the Johannesburg gold fields, and it is to this that the cartoons at the bottom of this page refer.

On the page that faces this are several cartoons from Australia, where, in the recent Parliamentary election, the balance of power has been secured by representatives of organized labor. Nowhere else in the world has there been manifested so grim a determination to maintain a white man's country as in Australia. It is the paradise of trade-unionism, and Chinese, Hindus, and negroes are not allowed within the pale.

THE RANDLORD'S AGENT.

The Colonial Secretary presents Ah Sin.
From the *Daily Chronicle* (London).

BRITISH LION CHINESE STYLE.

COLONIAL SECRETARY: "You'll find it very becoming to you, sir."—From the *Westminster Gazette* (London).

"How long will the war last?"

"Until July, when the great powers will have completed their armaments."—From *Graef* (Paris).

THE CZAR AND THE ANGEL OF PEACE.
From *Simplicissimus* (Berlin).

WHO DARES TO MAINTAIN NOW THAT JAPAN IS ONLY HALF
CIVILIZED?
From *Neue Glühlichter* (Vienna).

THE END OF THE STRUGGLE.
Supremacy in the East or bankruptcy.
From *Wahre Jacob* (Berlin).

NEUTRALITY: A CONTINENTAL VIEW.

"Very good, gentlemen. Only remain as neutral as up to the present."

From *Neue Glühlichter* (Vienna).



SPHINX: "What's the difference between you and the first Joseph?"

MR. CHAMBERLAIN: "Give it up."

SPHINX: "The first Joseph was put in a hole by his brethren—you're put your brethren in one."

From the *Westminster Gazette* (London).

THE BATTLE WITH THE CARICATURE PAPERS IN GERMANY.

(The cartoon paper *Simplicissimus* was suspended by the government.)

From *Lustige Blätter* (Berlin).

"THE OLD CRUSADER."

Sir William Harcourt will not seek reflection after the present Parliament.

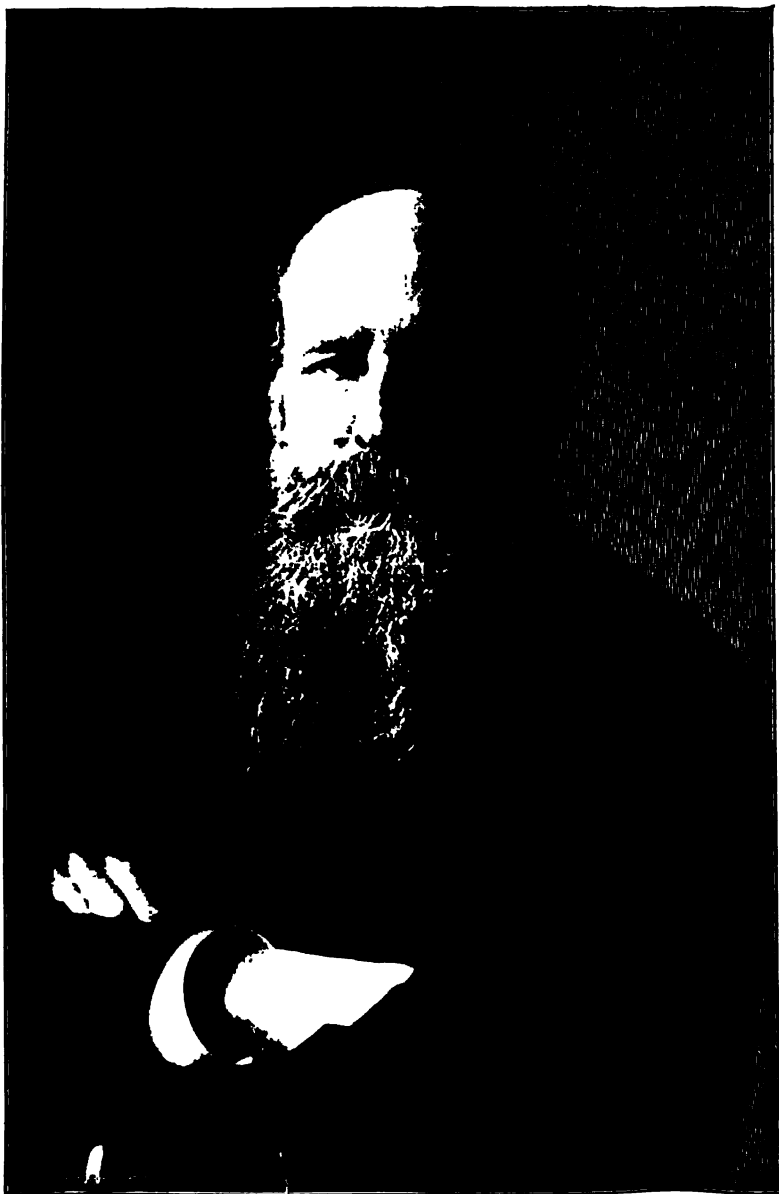
From the *Westminster Gazette* (London).

VERESTCHAGIN, PAINTER OF WAR.

VASSILI VERESTCHAGIN, the best known of Russian artists, won his fame throughout Europe and this country less on account of the technique of his pictures than of the subjects he painted. Russian by-birth, by education, by habit of thought, and by keenness of sympathy with the sufferings of humanity, he is Russian also in the terrible fidelity with which he expresses the tragedy of things. There is a greatness and a simplicity in his paintings which appeal to every one. We may shudder at them, but they speak, they arrest us; if we try to turn from them, they strike us full in the face and compel our attention. Verestchagin painted war because he had himself been a warrior. He was a soldier-artist,—a man who became a soldier for the sake of his art, and who used his art in order to teach the world the truth about soldiering.

There is seldom any actual fighting in the canvases of Verestchagin. This is in accordance with a theory to which he held all his life. He did not believe in depicting only the dramatic moments of war. If we reckon up the time spent in any war, he was fond of saying, we will find that by far the greatest part of the campaign is spent in suffering, great hardships, heavy labor, and miseries. "Weeks are spent in marching in blazing suns, in clouds of dust, or in toiling through mud while the rains drench you to the skin. War means hunger, thirst, sickness, the pain of wounds, privations of all kinds,—a reversion to the conditions of savage exist-

ence. All these things last for days, for weeks, for months, while the time that is passed in actual fighting is but a few hours. Why, then, should we, in painting war, devote our attention exclusively to these moments of excitement and



VASSILI VERESTCHAGIN, THE RUSSIAN ARTIST WHO PERISHED IN THE DESTRUCTION OF THE BATTLESHIP "PETROPAVLOVSK" ON APRIL 13.

THE FOREFRONT OF THE ATTACK.

(One of Verestchagin's pictures of the war with Turkey.)

ignore the dull, grim realities that make up the life of a soldier on campaign?"

HOW HE PAINTED NAPOLEON.

In his pictures of the French invasion of Russia, especially, has he carried out this theory. His object was to paint Napoleon, not as an aureoled God of War, the majestic and idealized hero of French legend, but the man as he actually was when confronted by the extremities of cold and the searching ordeal of defeat. Compare Verestchagin's Napoleon in retreat with the figure that appears in the famous picture in the Louvre, and you will see the difference between war as it is and war as it pleases the artistic flatterers of the God of War to represent it. In the departure of Napoleon from the burning Moscow, the canvas is heavy with the smoke-cloud and lurid with the flames of the burning city. When the pictures were exhibited at Vienna, the Emperor of Austria asked Verestchagin how he had succeeded in so making his canvas reek, as it were, with the smoke of the burning city. The artist replied that he painted it, like everything else, from fact. A great conflagration broke out some years ago at the city of Brest-Litovsk. The moment the news of the conflagration reached Moscow, Verestchagin packed up his paints and hastened off with his easel and his canvas to the burning city. There he painted the scene exactly as it was, and afterward found no difficulty in reproducing the lurid glow of the conflagration on the canvas devoted to the burning of Moscow. When these pictures were exhibited in France,

they affected some patriots to tears, while others exclaimed that never before had they adequately realized the immense human pathos that underlies the imperial tragedy. "The German Emperor, when he saw the pictures," said Verestchagin, "assured me that, as he had heard, Napoleon wore a huge handkerchief about his head. Why not? Common sense was his forte; and, as he was a native of southern Europe, the cold almost froze the blood in his veins." "Pictures like these," said the Kaiser, "are our best guarantee against war."

THE REAL DEATH OF ONE CALLED A CRIMINAL.

The great trio of paintings, the execution of the Nihilists, the Crucifixion, and blowing Sepoy mutineers from English cannon,—the gallows, the cross, and the cannon,—show the most ignominious death conceivable, in each case inflicted by the government of the day. One of the victims was Jesus Christ, but in the other pictures it is the Christians who were the executioners. Such a crucifixion as it is! You may see painted conceptions of the scene on Calvary by the hundred in all the picture galleries of Europe, but nothing like this. The associations of worship with which Christendom has surrounded the cross render it difficult for us to realize the gallows character of the cross. That comes out clear and strong in Verestchagin's work. The central figure is no glorified divinity, but a poor, haggard, long-haired, bleeding wretch, as no doubt He appeared when all His disciples forsook Him and fled, and the men of law and order, and the constituted authorities of the day,

congratulated themselves upon having effectually suppressed what was threatening to become a dangerous nuisance. The old painters destroyed the Incarnation in their efforts to represent it. Here at least is the hard-hit Man of Sorrows, who was wounded and bruised and hanged gal-lows high amid the mockings of a curious and savage crowd. Verestchagin may not have realized the Crucifixion. He has at least painted a scene which is possible, and done something to bring us back to the actual presence of the Jesus who was put out of the way as a disreputable vagabond and blasphemer in the days of Tiberius. The central fact in the Sepoy execution is the loaded cannon, the writhing victim, and the soldier in uniform, erect and stolid as an automaton, waiting the word of command to blow his helpless captive into a thousand fragments. The strong, bright glare of the Eastern sun brings the horrid group into clear relief. Another moment, and the motionless man in our uniform will pull the string, and—— Says M. Verestchagin, "Strange how many English

people resent my having painted this! Some say it never happened. Others, that it is far past, and will never recur. False—false! You did do it, and you will do it again. It is because you do that that you are able to remain!"

AN UNUSUAL EQUIPMENT.

Verestchagin was a remarkable man. Educated with a view to entering the navy, he developed such a talent with his pencil that he abandoned his destined profession and devoted himself to art. While still a young man, he began to travel, and spent several years in wandering throughout Asia. He spoke English excellently, and found himself at home in India. To these circumstances we owe some of his most wonderful pictures of Indian life and scenery; but for the most part he dwelt among his own people in Russian Turkestan, although he traveled far and wide in the debatable borderland which lies between the Chinese Empire and the Russian possessions. There is only one kind of war, he used to say. "War is the antithesis of

AN ENGLISH EXECUTION IN INDIA.

(Blowing Sepoy mutineers from the mouths of cannon.)

"STEADY! HERE THEY COME."

(An incident of the war in Turkestan.)

all morality, of all humanity. There never has been but one kind of war since the beginning of the world,—that is the war in which you endeavor to kill or inflict as much suffering upon the enemy as possible, seize as much of his prop-

erty as possible, and wound, kill, and take as many prisoners as possible. It maddens me even to listen to the observations made by drawing-room critics as to my pictures of war. It is not from real soldiers who have seen war that such

SURROUNDED.

(A moment in one of Russia's Central Asian campaigns.)

criticisms come. I have been through everything, believe me, in my determination to see everything and to know everything connected with warfare. I have taken part in almost every kind of operation. I have charged with infantry, and I have even led soldiers on to the assault. I have taken part in cavalry skirmishes, and when I was wounded on the Danube I was acting with sailors who were blowing up the Turkish monitor." The painter accompanied the British army in its South African campaigns, and took part in the Chinese expedition of the allies in 1900. When the present Russo-Japanese war began, he hurried to the front.

He visited the United States several times, and a number of exhibitions of his paintings have been held in American cities. At the suggestion of President Roosevelt, he visited Cuba, in 1902, to make sketches of the battlefields of Santiago. Later, he painted scenes in a soldier's career in the Philippines. The President sat for him, and the artist produced the great canvas showing Colonel Roosevelt leading the charge of the Rough Riders up San Juan Hill.

THE LETTER HOME.

(One of Verestchagin's famous series of Philippine pictures.)

THE BATTLE OF ZAPOTE BRIDGE.

(Another of the Philippine series.)

VICE-ADMIRAL TOGO: A TYPE OF THE JAPANESE FIGHTING MAN.

BY HIRATA TATSUO.

IN the family of Togo, in the clan of Satsuma, was born a child. His friends gave him the name of Heihachiro. Satsuma is one of the greatest homes of the fighting traditions of the Nippon samurai. Among the men of sword, in a happier day of the Elder Nippon, you need only tell the world that you are a samurai from Satsuma to enthrone yourself upon the crest of your countrymen's esteem as a fighting man. The family name of Togo is nearly as historical as the military genius of the Satsuma clan. It was on the fourteenth day of October, 1857, that the child of fate first opened its eyes. That was just about the time when the New Nippon was making blind gestures in her swaddling-clothes. So, you see, the present commander of Nippon forces on sea and the New Nippon are the children of almost the same cradle.

A little later, Saigo Takamori, the commander of all the imperial forces, led the brocade banners on their all-victorious course into the very heart of the Castle Capital of the Shogun. The chronicles show him to have been the greatest military genius that Nippon has ever produced since the days of Taiko and Iyeyasu. He, too, was a son of Satsuma. And the two families of Saigo and Togo are intimately connected.

Stern fact presents Admiral Togo as nothing more or less than an

admirable type of Nippon's fighting men,—poor in dinner speeches, poorer in the graces of a military "cake walk," and poorer yet in the touches of human weaknesses on the actual field of battle which would afford such delicious opportunity for the editorial critic.

EARLY TRAINING.

Almost from his babyhood, his life was placed upon the altar of militant Nippon. He is one of

the first graduates from the first naval academy in Nippon. In those now ancient days, this embryo school was called the Heigakuryo. No one can tell you the extraordinary record he made there—simply because he did not make it. If my memory serves me right, Hirayama Tojiro, the president of Shosen Gakko, was at the head of the class, and the present minister of the navy, Yamamoto Gombei, ranked sixth. They were nothing more than so many children then. The government sent abroad, at its expense, a number of boys who seemed to give more than a mere promise. Togo Heihachiro, a mere youth, went to the home-land of the greatest navy in the world, shouldering upon his tender years and shoulders the distinction of the chosen few among many samurai youths who were fated to uphold the majesty and dignity of their beloved emperor on sea. The other day, the secretary of the Thames Nautical Training College, in a letter to the press, pointed out the fact that the present admiral of the Nippon fleet had been aboard the *Worcester* in the years 1873 and 1874. Evidently, he did nothing very remarkable on the British training-ship; he was shelved away with the goodly company of a vast number of nice commonplaces "of excellent conduct and very good ability."

On his return, he found that his home-land welcomed him with a huge task. It was nothing less than the creation of a new navy. Even the small and thankless task of translating many a tiresome technical word, without which the science of naval warfare on modern lines could not be communicated to the youths of his country, fell upon him. From the lowest rank, he toiled, always fashioning the destiny of the Nippon navy, and always, mark you, without saying a word.

The first time the world heard of him was when he wrote—with an amazing abruptness—the preface to the Chino-Nippon War, on a beautiful fall day, off the Korean littoral. Go into the back yard of history, and in a merry company of Nippon sailors, over their ripening cups of *saké*, you hear the following:

IN THE WAR WITH CHINA.

There were rumors of war in those days. People talked of many things which big China would do to us before breakfast. But nothing definite was known. No one dreamed of such a thing as saying the last word. Suddenly, the *Naniwa* and her sister ships caught sight of the Chinese warships convoying transports. Admiral Togo was on the *Naniwa*. Instructions from his home government? Not a single shadow of it,—at least, as to the definite plan to follow. Some-

thing happened,—some say it was an accident. At any rate, the first thing you saw was that the Chinese warships were taking a wrong direction to get to Korea, and at their top speed. The *Naniwa* signaled the transport to follow the fleet in the direction of Nippon. The *Kowshing* was in charge of an English captain; he was willing to take his orders from the Nippon cruiser squadron. The Chinese officials aboard the ship were entirely too benighted for such a philosophical frame of mind. The world knows what happened. When Admiral Togo fished out the captain of the *Kowshing* from the water, he found an English officer who had been trained upon the same training-ship, the *Worcester*, the old acquaintance of his Thames days. When the news of the sinking of the Chinese transport reached Nippon—and through London, too, it was said—there was an extraordinary session of the cabinet before the throne. The late Marquis Saigo, the brother of the famous commander-in-chief of the men under the brocade banner in the days of restoration, was one of those present. Like most of the Satsuma men, he was rather rich in picturesque brusqueness of speech. He spoke of Admiral Togo as one of his pet boys. He said: "Your majesty, Heihachiro is a fool. He has brought us into an extremely embarrassing position. As for the course to be taken, however, that is compellingly clear. War is the only thing before us." In this manner the sailors under the sun-flag delight to recount the exploits of their beloved commander. History has not taken the trouble to guarantee the fidelity of this story to truth.

As an ornament in my lady's reception, I have a suspicion that the present commander of the Nippon fleet off Port Arthur is too silent, too grimly modest. As for commanding the respect—above all, implicit obedience—and what is more, the heart, of his men, Admiral Togo has no superior. Admiral Ito is a commander with the halo of high-rank superiority, which, nevertheless, is somewhat vague in the eyes of his men. Not that Vice-Admiral Togo does not carry such a halo in the eyes of his worshipers aboard the fighting ships of his majesty. But every one of the sailors of Nippon sees in him something more tangible than the godlike halo of rank and power. He knows that his commander can teach him in his own sphere of activity. Admiral Togo is one of the authors of the new navy of Nippon. He is master of every detail of the profession. There never sailed a more rigorous commander in point of discipline among his men than the admiral whose flag the *Mikasa* is now carrying to fame, with the absolute confidence of his government and his countrymen.

COMMODORE PERRY MEETING THE JAPANESE IMPERIAL COMMISSIONERS AT YOKOHAMA IN 1854.

(The illustrations in this article are reproduced from Commodore Perry's report of "The Expedition to the China Seas and Japan," published by the United States Government in 1856.)

FIFTY YEARS OF JAPAN.

BY ADACHI KINNOSUKE.

(Managing editor of the *Far East*, a monthly about to be published in New York as a "voice of the Orient.")

IT was July 8, 1853. The shades of evening were already falling across the historic plain of Musashi, upon which stood Yedo in all its glory as the capital city of the Shogun. Slowly, the *Susquehanna* leading the stately procession, the American squadron emerged out of distance and melting mists into the bay of Yedo. No stage, historic or histrionic, has ever seen an entrance quite so dramatic. The effect of it upon the land of our fathers was more than hysterical. The four ships of the American commodore became forty by the time the news reached Yedo; the guns on the ships were reported to be over three hundred, and the number of men over three thousand. Suddenly the castle city of the Shogun turned into a pandemonium. Everywhere you could see the bobbing up and down of topknots upon the heads of distracted men. Mothers rushed frantically about, clutching their babies to their bosoms in the very transport of despair and treading upon one another,—all

bound for nowhere. The din of heavy steel armor and the tread of the two-sworded samurai filled every street; the parade of firemen and war horses did not improve the serenity of the people. Men, with their aged mothers upon their backs, eager to flee somewhere, blocked the roads. And above the eternal tolling of the temple bells and the shrieks of the women, you could hear the loud singing of the ballad of the "Black Ship,"—

"Thro' a black night of cloud and rain,
The Black Ship plies her way—
An alien thing of evil mien—
Across the waters gray."

The consternation which seized the nation was beyond all words,—even beyond the adjectives of the fashionable historical novelists of our day.

The Japanese navy? It was magnificent for its picturesqueness. Its inspiration was for the decorative artist. The warship was remarkable for its high stern, its sculls dropping down from its sides and stern like so many misplaced tails,

—and it looked for all the world like a baby trireme of Roman days. It was remarkable also for the absence of guns. We had imported guns from our Dutch friends. We had gone far enough to make guns of a wondrous complexion,—and quite a number of them. But not a single one was aboard a ship. We had swords,—the best that the world has ever produced,—and plenty of them. We had arrows without number, but. . . . Many thousand miles of our beautiful coast line was perfectly innocent of forts. Worst of all, we had heard many a wondrous tale of the destructive power of the guns aboard the black ships, and the country, in the words of our historian of the time, was like unto the boiling water in a kettle.

On July 14, 1853, the very friendly letter of the American President Fillmore, addressed to the Emperor of Japan, was delivered, in a very undemocratic gold box of the value of one thousand dollars. No historic document had ever taxed the wits of the Shogun government as this commonplace and peaceful communication. What was to be done? The administration hit on a happy solution? It referred the contents of the letter to the lords of powerful clans and castles throughout the empire, and freely invited a frank expression of opinion from every one. This would throw the responsibility from the shoulders of the Shogun government on to those of the local heads of the clans. The following is the answer from the Prince of Mito, and I reproduce it in full, and at some length, simply because this may be taken to be the expression of one of the most enlightened not only of the princes of the day, but also of all the thinkers of Nippon fifty years ago. He wrote:

OPINION OF "THE OPPOSITION."

There are ten reasons in favor of war (refusal to open the country to foreigners):

1. The annals of our history speak of the exploits of the great, who planted banners on alien soil; but never has the clash of foreign arms been heard within the precincts of the Land of the Gods. Let not our generation be the first to see the disgrace of a barbarian army on the land where our fathers rest.

2. Notwithstanding the strict interdiction of Christianity, there are those guilty of the heinous crime of professing the doctrines of the evil sect. If now America be once admitted into our favor, the rise of this faith is a matter of certainty.

3. Can it be possible that we should glory in trading our gold, silver, copper, iron, and sundry useful materials for wool, glass, and similar trifling articles? Even the limited trade of the Dutch factory ought to have been stopped.

4. Many a time, recently, has Russia and other countries solicited trade with us, but they have been refused. If America once be permitted the privilege, what excuse is there for not extending the same to other nations?

5. The policy of the barbarians is, first to enter a country for trade, then to introduce their religions, and afterward to stir up strife and contention. Be guided by the experiences two centuries back. Despise not the teachings of the Chinese opium war.

6. The scholars learned in Dutch say that our people should cross the ocean, go to other countries, and engage in active trade. This is all very desirable, provided they be as brave and strong as were their ancestors in olden times, but at present the long-continued peace has incapacitated them for any such activity.

7. The necessity for action against the ships now lying in harbor [the American squadron] has brought the various samurai to the capital from distant quarters. Is it wise to disappoint them?

8. Not only the naval defense of Nagasaki, but all matters relating to foreign affairs, have been intrusted to the two clans of Kuroda and Nabeshima. To hold any conference with a foreign power outside the port of Nagasaki—as has been done this time at Uraga—is to encroach upon their rights and trust. These powerful families will not thankfully accept an intrusion upon their vested authority.

9. The haughty demeanor of the barbarians now at anchorage has provoked even the illiterate populace. If nothing be done to show that the government shares the indignation of the people, they will lose all fear and respect for it.

10. Peace and prosperity of long duration have enervated the knightly spirit, rusted the armor, and blunted the swords of our men. Dulled to ease, when shall they be aroused? Is not the present the most auspicious moment to quicken their martial spirit and sinews?

No one who knows would question the fact that in this the Prince of Mito gave expression to the dominant conviction of the thinking half of the Nippon of fifty years ago.

Put this historic memorial to the Shogun alongside of the editorial in the *Tokio Jiji Shimpō*, quoted elsewhere in this issue of the *REVIEW*, which voices the mind of the thinking Nippon of to-day, as the document of the Prince of Mito did that of his day. There is a

rather striking contrast between them. And yet my friend of seventy years, who is reading the *Jiji* to-day, was already a young man of twenty when the Prince of Mito memorialized the Shogun's advisers. The contrast, however, is not a whit more distinct and subtle or of deeper emphasis than the difference between a high-sterned junk, with crested sails, gay with infinite banners, bright with shining spears and armors and swords, and Admiral Togo's flagship, the *Mikasa*, which enjoys the distinction of being the greatest battleship in commission in the world to-day.

FEUDAL JAPAN.

At the time of Commodore Perry's visit feudalism was in full bloom. The Shogun, at the head of the lords of several castles, held within his hand the actual power of administration under the name of the military regent of the emperor. The country was then divided into sixty-four clans. Every one of them had its own laws, its own prince, its own local government, its own system of currency and of taxation; its own peculiar methods of doing business; its own department of justice, of census, and of public works. Theoretically under one central government of the Shogun, at Yedo, these clans were, in truth, quite independent, in politics and industry, one of the other. A large economic or industrial activity was impossible in the country. The land was held by feudal princes by a sort of legal fiction, and the taxes imposed upon the tillers of the soil were considered as rentals. It is a far cry from the limited monarchy under the present constitution of Nippon, yet our fathers, the men of the Kayei period, are to-day still playing with our own children.

No one seems to celebrate March 13, 1854. But certainly we of Nippon ought to print this day in no too modest red. That was the day when the dwellers of the Land of the Gods beheld for the first time the practical working of a locomotive. On that day, telegraphic wires were stretched for the first time through the air all scented with poetry and tradition. To be sure, the locomotive was an exaggerated toy, nothing more, and the telegraph wires did not go beyond a mile or two, but they were perfect patterns of the real. That was the day set aside for the landing and exhibition of the presents from the United States Government to the imperial court of Nippon. The chronicler of the Perry expedition entered the following for the historic day:

The telegraphic apparatus. . . . was soon in working order. . . . When communication was opened up be-

COMMODORE PERRY'S LARGEST SHIP, THE "MISSISSIPPI."

tween the operators at each extremity, the Japanese watched with intense curiosity the *modus operandi*, and were greatly amazed to find that, in an instant of time, messages were conveyed in the English, Dutch, and Japanese languages from building to building. Day after day the dignitaries gathered, and eagerly beseeching the operators to work the telegraph, watched with unabated interest the sending and receiving of messages. . . . Nor did the railway, with its Lilliputian locomotive, car, and tender, excite less interest. All the parts of the mechanism were perfect, and the car was a most tasteful specimen of workmanship.

PROGRESS OF HALF A CENTURY.

And this, think of it,—just on the other side of half a century! Not a single inch of rail in all the empire of Nippon then. In fact, it was in 1872 that the first eighteen miles of railway were opened for traffic. In 1903, there were 4,237 miles actually in operation, with the daily earning per mile as high as 79 yen and 49 sen. The toy locomotives and carriages of Perry's day waxed strong and multiplied to 1,427 engines, 4,864 passenger coaches, and 21,505 freight cars. In the fiscal year of 1901-1902, the number of passengers carried reached 111,211,208, and 14,409,752 tons of freight were transported. The little telegraph line between two houses in Kanagawa, which took the breath away from our good fathers fifty years ago, grew to 84,000 miles of wire in 1903, with 2,198 offices scattered throughout the land. The telephone system, which saw its light in our country for the first time in 1890, has outgrown the telegraph in mileage. In 1903, there were over 108,000 miles of it in the country. In the days of Perry, not one steamer was upon the Orient seas or any other seas under the Nippon flag. In 1901, we had 5,415 vessels, sail and steam, of the European pattern, with a gross tonnage of 919,968. The Nippon Yusen Kaisha alone owned seventy steamers in 1901, of the tonnage

of 221,871. You see, then, that the development of our mercantile marine has not been a step behind that of our navy, with which the present war has made you familiar.

When the American squadron was cutting the virgin wake in the waters of Yedo Bay, our foreign commerce was limited to dealings with the Dutch. It was an entertaining joke. No serious-minded person seems to have taken the trouble of chronicling the amount of business done. That joke, however, developed into a rather serious affair in 1902. In that year, our foreign trade amounted to the modest sum of 530,034,324 yen. In the same year, no less than 6,211 steamers, with a tonnage of 11,399,415, entered our ports from foreign countries.

It has been a remarkable commercial and industrial development, that of Nippon, within the past fifty years. Something even more marvelous than this, however, can be seen in the flowering of the intellectual life of the New Nippon.

YOSHIDA SHOIN, HERO AND MARTYR.

There was mild excitement on board the American squadron, then off Uruga, at the unearthly hour of 2 o'clock in the morning of April 25, 1854. The officer of the midwatch on the *Mississippi* heard a voice from a boat alongside. Presently he saw, climbing up the ladder, two young samurai. Without understanding a word, the officer, nevertheless, saw very well that these boys wished to remain on board the ship. He turned them over to the flagship of the commodore. As soon as they reached the *Susquehanna* the boys cut their boat adrift, and, gaining the deck, begged for an interview with the high admiral of the American squadron. Through the interpreter, they told the Americans the story of their dream, which meant to them more than life, and of their ambition to open their eyes upon a wider horizon than that which hemmed in the sixty provinces of Nippon. Nothing would have pleased the commodore more than to be able to take these young men, who carried upon their faces the marks of gentle birth and an uncommon highness of mind, back to his native land as the first and pleasing fruit from the successful and fruitful negotiation which he had just concluded. At the same time, he was very well aware of the laws of the land. He knew that the government of the Shogun punished with severe penalties those natives who ventured abroad. He was on friendly terms with the government of the Shogun; it was certainly not wise for him to help any one break the laws of the country. When they were refused, the young samurai told the Americans pointedly that their return to their native shore

meant sure death for them,—the government's sentence would be capital punishment. The American officers, however, could not conceive of such a thing as punishing so laudable an undertaking as that of braving unknown waters, that one might study the institutions of the world, with beheading. So the two boys were sent ashore. The very following morning they were state prisoners behind iron bars. A few days later, some American officers, in their wanderings through the village of Uruga, happened to find themselves in front of narrow, cage-like apartments. It was the prison. They saw the two young samurai behind the bars. One of them wrote upon a piece of board a few sentences and handed it to the Americans. It read:

When a hero fails in his purpose, his acts are then regarded as those of a villain and a robber. In public we have been seized and pinioned and caged for many days. The village elders and head men treat us disdainfully, their oppressions being grievous indeed. Therefore, looking up while yet we have nothing wherewith to reproach ourselves, it must now be seen whether a hero will prove himself to be one indeed. Regarding the liberty of going through the sixty states as not enough for our desires, we wished to make the circuit of the five great continents. This was our hearts' wish for a long time. Suddenly our plans are defeated, and we find ourselves in a half-sized house, where eating, resting, sitting, and sleeping are difficult. Weeping, we seem as fools; laughing, as rogues. Silent we can only be.

A NATIONAL SCHOOLMASTER.

The author of this now historic document, worthy of the best traditions of Rome and of Sparta, was named Yoshida Torajiro, but he is better known among his countrymen as Yoshida Shoin. He was handed over to the lord of his own clan, in the castle town of Hagi, on the Sea of Nippon, to be guarded as a state prisoner awaiting the sword of the headsman at Yedo. In this manner he was confined for more than five years. The lord of his clan was friendly to him, and he was given a little cottage under the pine. It was there that he gathered together a number of young boys of the clan of Choshu and taught them. This school passed into history under the name of Matsushita Gijiku—the School Under the Pine. "He did not teach us exactly," said one of his boys, who, in later years, filled cabinet positions many times over,—"he simply gave himself unto us." The cottage was not big; you could pack the whole thing, roof and all, into your drawing-room. But the boys who had gone to school there have been filling the entire front of the stage of the New Nippon. Marquis Ito Hirobumi was the janitor of that school, and Kido Koin (and we

JAPANESE SOLDIERS FIFTY YEARS AGO.

never think of adding titles to his name, on the same principle that we never think of saying Mr. Plato or General Napoleon), by far the greatest constructive genius among the statesmen of the New Nippon, was the eldest of those boys. The Shogun's administration beheaded the man whom Marquis Ito always calls the Great Master, upon the plain of Musashi, a little out of the city of Yedo. Upon the spot where he fell, however, you can see a shrine to-day.

What would have happened had Commodore Perry brought those two boys over to the United States is a big enough theme for the gods to speculate upon. It is quite enough for us to know that the constitution of the enlightened reign of Meiji was given to us through the hands and brain of one of the boys in whom the great soul of Yoshida Shoin found a partial avatar. And the history of the statesmanship in Nippon is not one to be ashamed of. In an ordinary lifetime of an ordinary man, the land in which the flower of youth was drunk with the heady wine of the doctrine of the Jo-i (Sweep-Away-the- Foreign- Barbarian) is now taking arms against the nightmare ambitions of the greatest despotic power on earth. The hermit

nation on the off edge of the Orient seas of fifty years ago has already taken the torch of liberal progress from your American hands, and is bearing it to the heart of Asia. In a calmer day the historian would doubtless say that, from a larger viewpoint, the present struggle of Nippon is remarkable more for what it would accomplish for Anglo-American supremacy in Oriental civilization and trade than as the life-and-death struggle of a nation.

THE PURPOSES AND AIMS OF JAPAN.

It is a twice-told tale with you, that all that Nippon wants in Manchuria and Korea is an open field wherein any one,—be he white, black, or yellow; be he Christian or heathen,—may run a commercial race in which the best man shall win. That is exactly what you want,—you and England. To develop Manchuria and Korea, and fortify them against such a neighbor as Russia, is utterly beyond the financial ability of Nippon,—even if she wished to do so. Years ago, when we were young and foolish, Nippon used to dream of territorial expansion. To-day, somewhat wiser, she only cares for commercial conquest pure and simple.

TORPEDOES AND TORPEDO WARFARE.

BY HUDSON MAXIM.

[Mr. Hudson Maxim, the well-known inventor of Maximite, and one of the inventors of smokeless gunpowder, has devoted his time recently to the improvement of the locomotive power of the Whitehead torpedo. He has an extensive experimental plant at Lake Hopatcong, N. J., where this work is carried on. The tests so far made indicate that his invention will make practicable a speed of over forty miles an hour for an automobile torpedo on a run of several miles. The following article gives an account of the present state of the torpedo art, as practised in the Russo-Japanese war, and shows the tremendous advantage that will result from any great increase in speed and range of the Whitehead torpedo.—THE EDITOR.]

THE brilliant successes of the Japanese navy in the present war have been due principally to the efficient use of one of the best torpedo flotillas that has ever been constructed. Such a series of successful attacks by the little boats of a little empire upon the giant battleships of an enormous empire has aroused the interest of the world in the mechanism and operation of the engines of war by which so great destruction has been wrought.

The automobile torpedo, which in its action upon the greatest war vessels has been compared to the stone and sling of David, is no simple device. It is the product of the inventive genius of many minds, studying and experimenting in different countries for more than a hundred years. It remained for the Japanese, however, to demonstrate in actual warfare the terrible efficiency of the torpedo inventions which have been designed and constructed by other nations, and the latest type of which has been liberally ordered by the Japanese Government in the formation of her present splendid navy.

Although torpedo-boat service is the most dangerous and discomforting of all naval assignments, yet such is the unrivaled effectiveness of the work of automobile torpedoes that some of the highest officers of the Japanese navy begged for commands in the torpedo flotilla.

The destruction of Russian warships by the Japanese torpedo boats, which was the beginning of the war, and which apparently culminated in the terrible disaster to the *Petropavlovsk*, April 13, was not the result of accident, and was not due

to exceptional skill on the part of the Japanese naval officers, but was due mainly to the high efficiency to which this branch of naval service has been brought by civilized nations. But it is true that the Japanese probably more fully appreciated the value and advantages of this branch of the service than any other nation.

In order to be a competent torpedo warsman, it is necessary to be possessed of a peculiarly dare-devil disposition, and one must be so constituted as to find comfort in a very strenuous life, and one fraught with many hard knocks. The torpedo-boat warrior is exposed to the buffeting elements,—his little craft is tossed about like an egg-shell. It is built for speed; and as it is propelled through the water by its powerful engines at a railroad pace, cutting clean through the mountainous seas, the crew is subjected to a variety of experiences quite incomprehensible to a landsman, and not easily appreciated by those whose knowledge of the sea has been obtained by crossing the ocean on a great liner.

The torpedo warsman must be abroad in the night and the storm, for such is the best time to steal unawares upon some giant battleship of the enemy and sink her. But there are two sources of weakness in his system which serve to betray him to the enemy. The first is the terrible searchlight of the enemy, and the second is the glow of his own funnels venting the great furnaces under his boilers.

Since the duration of exposure to the enemy's fire is inversely as the speed of the torpedo boat in approaching the ship to be attacked, and

since the liability of being hit at any moment is also lessened by rapidity of motion, it is evident that the torpedo boat must seek safety in the greatest possible speed, and must take its chances in running the gantlet of the enemy's fire in order to get within range and launch its torpedoes.

The instant the torpedo boat is sighted by a battleship, it is met with a perfect hail-storm of missiles of all sizes, which makes the water fairly boil about it. Just as the modern soldier, who no longer wears armored protection, must trust to chance in charging through a zone of exposure, so must the torpedo boat trust to chance, for it is not built to offer any resistance whatever to even the smallest shot.

The question naturally arises—is not the torpedo boat subjected to far greater risk than the battleship, and is it not much more likely to be destroyed, with the loss of all on board, than the larger and more substantial battleship and cruiser? The answer is, certainly the risk is considerably greater to the torpedo boat, but the battleship costs six millions of dollars, and may have a thousand men on board, while the torpedo boat may cost not more than one-fiftieth as much, and may not have one-fiftieth part as many men on board. In other words, fifty torpedo boats may be built and manned at no greater expense than a single battleship. Consequently, fifty torpedo boats may be destroyed, with the loss of all on board, in order to sink a single battleship, and the loss be equal to both sides, while if two battleships can be sunk by the sacrifice of fifty torpedo boats, the torpedo flotilla has won a decided victory. As a matter of fact, it is probable that in actual warfare not more than ten torpedo boats, on the average, would be destroyed by battleships for every battleship sunk by them. This means that the present torpedo system is five times as efficient as the battleship.

Hundreds of torpedo boats have been constructed for the navies of Europe. The danger from these little hornets of the sea was so evident that torpedo boats of a larger size were built especially to destroy the smaller ones of the enemy. These larger boats are called torpedo-boat catchers or torpedo-boat destroyers. They are provided with much more powerful

DELIVERING A TORPEDO.

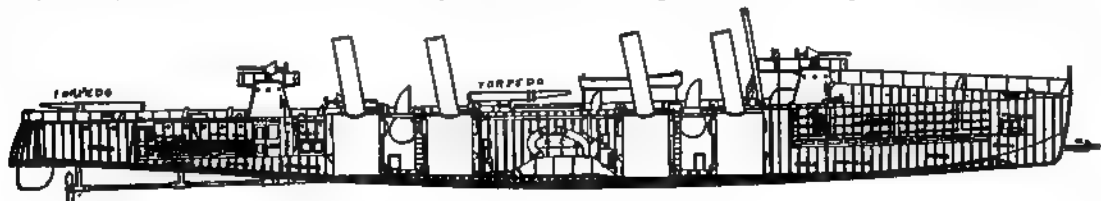
engines, and are made to travel at considerably greater speed, while they carry a powerful armament of quick-firing guns.

In South Africa, there is a fly known as the tsetse fly, whose bite is sure death to the ox. Imagine an ox attacked by fifty such flies at one time. What chance would he have for his life, armed with but his head and tail to keep them off? Twenty-five hundred torpedoes can be provided at the cost of a single battleship, any one of which, should it reach her, will send her to the bottom. It is obvious that a battleship, attacked simultaneously by a dozen such enemies, would be as unable to protect herself with her guns as is the ox to protect itself against the tsetse fly by the switch of its tail.

A review of the history of torpedo invention and warfare affords ground for the belief that there is still room for other improvements in the torpedo itself, and that the result will be to further limit the field of usefulness of the modern battleship.

Capt. David Bushnell, an American engineer officer of the Revolution, designed a submarine torpedo boat for use against the English ships. A practical trial of the boat was made in 1776, in an attack against the *Eagle*, the flagship of Lord Howe, lying in New York Harbor, and the vessel narrowly escaped destruction.

Twenty years later, Robert Fulton produced similar plans, and attempted to introduce sub-



From the *Scientific American*.

VERTICAL SECTION OF A TORPEDO BOAT.

marine warfare in the French navy. The *Nautilus*, designed by him, blew up a launch in the harbor of Brest. This was in August, 1801, and is the first instance known of a vessel being destroyed by a submarine explosive. Notwithstanding this successful test, the torpedo project was rejected by the French and later by the English Government. Fulton returned, disappointed, to the United States, where he made some further successful experiments, and then elaborated a project for four classes of torpedoes, —namely, buoyant mines, line torpedoes, harpoon torpedoes, and block-ship torpedoes. These carefully prepared plans were offered to the United States Government, but were rejected. The system in use at the present time includes all these devices except the third, which shows how far Fulton was in advance of his age. In 1829, Col. Samuel Colt, of Hartford, inventor of the Colt revolver, began making torpedo experiments, and after years of labor worked out a system of electrically operated submarine mines. He destroyed several vessels at anchor, and finally, April 13, 1843, accomplished the feat of blowing up a brig under full sail on the Potomac from a station five miles distant. This achievement was witnessed by President Tyler and many members of Congress; but Colt was also too far ahead of his time, and his plans were likewise ultimately rejected by the Government.

Submarine mines were first used in actual warfare in the Schleswig-Holstein rebellion of 1848, when the harbor of Kiel was protected by them. In 1859, Venice was protected by a more elaborate system of submarine mines, but its effectiveness was not tested.

During the American Civil War, submarine torpedoes were extensively used by the Confederates, and for the first time in history became an actual factor in war. Seven Union ironclads, thirteen wooden war vessels, and seven army transports were destroyed by torpedoes, and eight other vessels more or less injured. The Confederates lost four vessels by their own mines, and the *Albemarle*, a fine ironclad, by the daring exploit of Lieutenant Cushing, who used a spar torpedo. The details of the Confederate torpedo system were published shortly after the adoption of torpedoes by European nations. A few years later, Captain Whitehead, of the Austrian navy, invented the automobile torpedo, which has since been adopted by the principal maritime nations of the world. England was early to recognize the tremendous advantage of this invention, and purchased the right to use it in 1871.

In the Russo-Turkish war of 1877-78, the Russians made considerable use of torpedoes,

but chiefly for the defense of their harbors. They used a Whitehead automobile torpedo at Batum, January 25, 1878, to sink one of the enemy's vessels. This was the first successful test of this machine in war, and it has ever since had a foremost place among such naval weapons.

During the war between France and China, in 1884, the *Yang-Woo* was attacked and destroyed by an outrigger torpedo.

During the war between China and Japan, in 1894-95, the Japanese made an attack on Wei-Hai-Wei, during which their torpedo flotilla entered the harbor on two successive nights and succeeded in sinking several vessels, two of which were armored ships.

The destruction of the United States battleship *Maine*, in Havana harbor, before the Spanish-American War, and the destruction, last month, of the *Petropavlovsk*, are the most striking examples of the terrible power of submarine mines and torpedoes.

During the Spanish-American War, the United States torpedo boats were used only defensively, and to help in bottling Cervera's fleet. Since the battleships waiting for the fight with Cervera's fleet were well equipped with big guns and ammunition, it was deemed best by Captain Mahan and the War Board not to try any experiments by offensive operations with the torpedo boats. The result was sufficiently brilliant to justify their judgment, but it is generally admitted that the United States lost a rare opportunity to advance the art of torpedo warfare.

During the first week of the present Russo-Japanese war, eleven Russian vessels were destroyed or disabled, and it is believed that the larger part of this destruction was wrought by torpedoes. The Japanese navy has a splendid modern flotilla of torpedo boats, consisting of thirty-five boats of the second class, thirty-eight of the first class, and twenty torpedo-boat destroyers having an average speed of about thirty-one knots. These ninety-three boats have a total displacement of 14,163 tons.

The Russian navy is also very well equipped with torpedo boats, but for some reason they are not being used, so far as known from press reports. The Russian flotilla consists of twelve boats of the second class, fifty-four boats of the first class, and twenty destroyers. These eighty-six torpedo boats are all modern, and have a total displacement of 13,000 tons. Russia also has one hundred old torpedo boats which are classed as obsolete.

The Japanese Government has kept well abreast of the times in arms and equipments. Torpedo warfare appears to have especially appealed to the Japanese mind, and some of their

carries about twelve Whitehead torpedoes. Each torpedo is worth \$3,000. Torpedo boats and torpedo-boat destroyers cost all the way from \$50,000 to \$250,000.

And what is the Whitehead torpedo, for the carriage and firing of which so many hundreds of boats have been expressly built, and which, in the opinion of some experts, is destined to drive battleships from the seas and make them relics of the past? The popular idea of this machine is a cigar-shaped tube filled with dynamite, which is fired from one ship to another. The shape of the machine is sufficiently familiar from illustrations, but that the tube contains consider-

able delicate mechanism may be judged from the fact that in its operation it is the most wonderful fighting-machine ever devised.

The Whitehead torpedo can be set to explode after a definite time, or after the run of a certain distance, but it is generally set to explode on impact. It may be set to travel at a uniform speed the whole of its range, and at a uniform depth below the surface, and in a constant direction. It may also be set, if desired, to run at some predetermined variable speed, depth, and direction. It can also be set so that in the event of not striking the ship aimed at, it will stop at the end of its range and sink. It can also be set to stop at any distance within the limits of its range, rise to the surface, and float.

The Whitehead torpedo, built for the United States Government, is made chiefly of steel, and nearly in the shape of a porpoise. Its greatest diameter is nearly eighteen inches. It is made in two sizes or lengths of about twelve feet and seventeen feet, respectively. The weight of the shorter one, ready for discharge, is nearly half a ton. As constructed by the E. W. Bliss Company, of Brooklyn, these torpedoes are made in five sections, containing, in all, nearly two thousand separate pieces. Beginning at the head of the machine, which is sometimes called the business end, we find one hundred and ten pounds of wet gun-cotton packed above a bronze partition. This cotton is inserted in the form of disks, which are pierced through their centers to make room for a little brass case of dry gun-cotton priming. The front end of the dry gun-cotton is pierced to receive the detonating primer,

From the Scientific American.

THE JAPANESE TORPEDO-BOAT DESTROYER "SHIRAKUMO."

torpedo boats and torpedo-boat destroyers are among the finest in the world. Take the *Shirakumo* and the *Asashio*, for example. They have each a length of 215 feet 9 inches, a beam of 18 feet 4 inches, and their draught is 8 feet 4 inches. At their official trials they obtained a speed of 31.74 knots, with indicated horse-power of more than 7,000. Their armament consists of 1.75 mm. quick-firing guns, mounted on a conning-tower, and 5.57 mm. quick-firing guns on the main deck, four of which have wide training angles on the broadside, and one aft has a broadside and stern-fire training. The amount of ammunition supplied to a gun is the same as that supplied to the thirty-knot English destroyers, while that for smaller guns is four times that assigned to the English boats.

Their crew consists of sixty men and officers, the former being berthed forward of the machinery space, while the petty and chief officers are abaft that space.

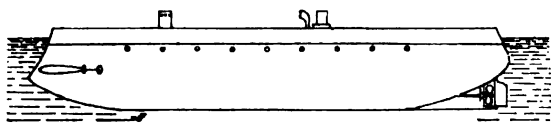
Their boilers are protected by coal in wing bunkers, and their engines, of which there are two, as these boats have twin screws, are of triple-expansion type.

Having two sets of boilers and two sets of engines, even if one compartment were flooded and one engine or boiler rendered useless, it would still be possible for a crippled boat to make good its escape. The greatest danger, of course, lies in the fact that the range at which a torpedo can be discharged with reasonable prospects of a hit is only about half a mile, and that is well within the range of even the smallest guns on either battleship or cruiser. Each boat

containing fulminate of mercury, and capped with a percussion cap. In front of the primer case is screwed a war nose, which operates automatically when the torpedo strikes the target by driving the firing-pin against the cap and so effecting a series of explosions ending with the wet gun-cotton.

Back of the head is the flask, which occupies more than half the length of the machine. It is filled with air compressed to a pressure of thirteen hundred and fifty pounds to the square inch, or to one-ninetieth of its ordinary volume. The escape of this air through a small valve leading to the engines, and motors, placed in a compartment back of the flask, furnishes all the power for the locomotion of the machine.

Between the flask and the engine there is a very important compartment containing the



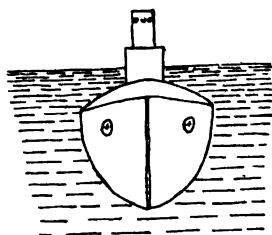
SEMI-SUBMERGED TORPEDO BOAT.

(Invented by Hudson Maxim.)

mechanism for automatically regulating the depth of immersion—keeping it constant according to a setting of the machine. This device was never patented, but was kept a secret, the details of it being sold to the various maritime nations. The principle of it is this: There are several apertures through the walls of the machine which are covered by diaphragms of thin rubber. The pressure of the water outside, which increases with the depth, pushes these inward accordingly, and at the same time pushes pistons that rest behind the rubber diaphragms. This motion of the pistons is communicated to horizontal rudders, so that a slight deviation from the assigned depth will immediately incline them; and thus the machine is raised or depressed as required. A pendulum suspended in the same compartment operates similarly to keep the machine in a horizontal position.

The rear compartment of the torpedo contains the engines and other machinery of locomotion. The velocity of the torpedo depends on the rate at which the compressed air is allowed to escape to the cylinders of the main engine, and this depends on the setting of a valve. This valve can be set to close automatically after the machine has run a predetermined distance, thus preventing an explosion by impact with some object beyond the vessel aimed at in case a hit is not made. An automatic sinking-gear is also provided, which makes the machine sink to the bot-

tom after an unsuccessful run. The tail of the torpedo consists of the propellers and their attachments. The propellers are a pair of either two-bladed or four-bladed screws, placed tandem, and geared to revolve in opposite directions at the same speed, to avoid the rolling of the



END VIEW OF A SEMI-SUBMERGED TORPEDO BOAT.

(Invented by Hudson Maxim.)

machine which would otherwise result. At the end of the tail is the vertical rudder, which is usually set to keep the machine on a straight course. This straightness of path is highly important, because a deviation from the point aimed at would generally result in missing the vessel. A new

application of the gyroscope works admirably to correct a slight deviation. Every bicyclist, and every roller of a hoop or spinner of a top, knows from experience that a revolving body has a strong tendency to keep its plane of rotation, the resistance to change of plane depending on the velocity of rotation. The gyroscope used in the torpedo looks like a top swinging in two brass rings on gimbals, set at right angles. It is set spinning at a great velocity by the automatic releasing of a spring a few seconds after the torpedo is discharged. If the torpedo deviates, the angles between the revolving wheel and the rings change accordingly, and thus valves are opened and springs released which move the rudder to the right or left, and so the machine is brought back to its course. These torpedoes will run from 800 to 4,000 yards at a velocity of from 35 knots to 26 knots per hour.

Almost every year is marked by some decided improvement in the Whitehead torpedo. The accuracy of the machine has been greatly increased, and now the greatest need is to increase its velocity so that the ship aimed at will have less chance of changing its bearing during the run of the torpedo. The launching of a torpedo is a simple matter, but it requires a special apparatus, called the torpedo tube. The torpedo tubes were formerly placed under the waterline, and the torpedoes put within them were started by the admission of compressed air to the rear of the tubes. After the torpedoes were made self-adjusting, it was found that they could be projected from any height above the water, and that after striking the water and taking a plunge, they would immediately rise to their proper depth of immersion. Cordite or

THE TORPEDO ROOM IN THE BLISS FOUNDRY.

gunpowder is commonly used now for giving the initial impulse.

In response to a general sentiment throughout the service, and in accordance with a recommendation of the Board of Construction, Secretary Moody has authorized the installation of submerged torpedo tubes on all United States battleships and armored cruisers now building. The success of Japanese torpedo attacks on Port Arthur assisted in this decision.

Among the vessels affected by this order are the 16,000-ton battleships *Vermont*, *Kansas*, *Minnesota*, *Connecticut*, and *Louisiana*; the 15,320-ton battleships *Virginia*, *Rhode Island*, *New Jersey*, *Nebraska*, and *Georgia*, and the armored cruisers *Tennessee* and *Washington*.

All the fighting ships authorized at this session of Congress will be fitted with the submerged torpedo tubes. The Board of Construction, of which Rear-Admiral O'Neil was president, recommended that at least two tubes should be installed in each of these ships, and it was declared advisable to have four.

The battleships *Maine*, *Missouri*, and *Ohio* are the last ships built with torpedo tubes. They have two each—one at the bow and one at the stern.

Great advances have also been made in torpedo-boat construction, in their sea-going qualities, armament, and speed. The torpedo-boat de-

stroyer *Boxer* ran, on the official trial, at the rate of 34.95 statute miles per hour. In no other class of marine architecture has progress been so rapid.

The automobile torpedo has not only produced a system of warfare, but it has already essentially modified the navies of the world and the methods of coast defense. Such a complicated machine, having such important relations to all naval warfare, evidently calls for careful study and expert management. To meet these needs, instruction in the subject is regularly given to officers at the United States Naval War College, at Newport, R. I., and to seamen-gunners at the torpedo station, also at Newport. At the army school at Willets Point, New York, defensive torpedoes are experimentally studied, and both officers and enlisted men of the engineers are exercised in all the duties of defensive submarine mining. Such torpedoes as are steered by electricity may be operated either from land or from shipboard, and hence may be used by either the army or the navy. The fish torpedo, steered by electricity, consists essentially of a machine of the Whitehead type which carries and unreels a coil of insulated wire connected with an electric battery or dynamo on shore or on board ship.

The Howell torpedo is an American invention, which at one time rivaled the Whitehead

machine. The feature of this torpedo is a heavy fly-wheel inside the machine and attached to the propellers. This wheel is made to revolve rapidly before the machine is discharged, and the stored energy constitutes the motive power, and so supersedes the flask of compressed air.

One of the newest types of torpedo boats is the submarine. This style of vessel runs on the surface until within a mile or two of the enemy, then becomes partially, or entirely submerged, and completely disappears from sight just before discharging a projectile. So long as its smokestack can be allowed to stick up out

of the water, the boat is propelled by gasoline engines. When she dives, the screws are driven by storage batteries and an electric motor. Even on the surface, these boats run slowly, none yet built making more than ten or eleven knots or traveling faster than six or eight when fully immersed. They are also much smaller than the average destroyer. Boats of this kind are provided with additional mechanism to maintain a level course under the surface, to take in and eject water rapidly, and for making observations when the hull is completely out of sight. For this last purpose, an optical instrument of peculiar construction, known as the periscope, is mounted at the very top of a tube which stands up like a tiny smokestack, and in which mirrors, or prisms, transmit the picture to an observer inside the boat. The method of discharging a torpedo is the same with a submarine as with any other torpedo boat.

France and the United States have been pioneers in this line of experiment. England, Germany, Italy, and even Sweden, have followed

From the Scientific American.

THE BOW TORPEDO-ROOM OF THE "INDIANA."

suit. Russia has also conducted experiments. In 1902 and 1903 she had seven boats under construction, and she has just ordered four more. A boat entirely under water stands a much smaller chance of being discovered; but maneuvers off Newport have shown that the other class of vessel can get dangerously near before being observed.

It is the first principle of war that victory belongs to the force that is superior at the point of contact, and the very ideal of such superiority is embodied in an automatic fighting-machine that can be sent at will from some distant point to the stronghold of the enemy and there exploded with destructive power. Such is the automobile torpedo.

Japan was foremost in recognizing the effectiveness of torpedo warfare, as is shown by her splendid torpedo-boat flotilla, and now she has demonstrated to the world the correctness of her judgment, and at the same time displayed the brilliant martial skill and patriotic courage of her sailors.

From the Scientific American.

LONGITUDINAL SECTION THROUGH THE HOLLAND SUBMARINE TORPEDO BOAT.

THE ST. LOUIS FAIR: WHAT EVERYBODY WILL WISH TO KNOW BEFORE GOING.

BY WILLIAM FLEWELLYN SAUNDERS.

THE main gateway of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, which was opened with ceremony at St. Louis on April 30, has been skillfully placed, so that visitors entering are struck first by the great beauty of the sight before them. Realization of the magnitude of the fair comes afterward, with the tired legs and jaded senses. Going in, one comes directly into the Plaza of St. Louis, the great court of the grounds. On one side is the ivory-white exhibition palace devoted to varied industries, and on the other is the Manufactures Building, each structure with its own delight of columns and sculpture. In the center of the Plaza is the noble equestrian statue of St. Louis, flanked by two other equestrian statues, one of De Soto and the other of Joliet. Beyond is the graceful Louisiana Purchase Monument, crowned by Carl Bitter's statue of Peace. Almost at its foot gleam the waters of a bright lagoon, where gondolas are plying and the boatmen singing melodiously. The eye crosses the lagoon and rests on the Grand Basin, a broad sheet of water into which, at its farther side, three splendid cascades, side by side, but converging, the central one the largest, fall over a green hill seventy feet high in a succession of glittering leaps. These cascades emerge from three charming domed buildings on the hill, the ones at the sides pretty pavilions, that in the center a dignified and impressive edifice—Festival Hall. Linking together these three structures is a curved colonnade—the Colonnade of States—between whose ornamented pillars are seated statues of women, each symbolic of one of the fourteen States of the Louisiana Purchase.

From the St. Louis statue to Festival Hall is more than half a mile, but the eye includes this whole scene with one glance. If the visitor be guided by an experienced friend, he will not, after this first view, continue his tour of the grounds by sauntering about with the crowd, but he will make his way by a gondola across the lagoon and the Grand Basin to Festival Hall, climb the hill, and view the grounds from the stone balcony overlooking the first gush of

the central cascade. Every sense will thrill with enjoyment as he overlooks the panorama spread before him, two miles one way and nearly a mile the other way. Close behind him is the Palace of Fine Arts, and behind that an open forest in the grounds, where people may stray and rest. In front, on the plain below, all of them touched by the lagoons, are eight of the other magnificent exhibit buildings. Beyond still are the gaudily colored minarets, towers, and flags of the show buildings on the Pike, the enormous blue dome of the spectacle Creation crowning the whole. On the right is the Government Building and the Plateau of States, an alluring grove in which most of the State buildings are, the green dome of Germany's Charlottenberg partly stopping the view. To the right, within a few steps of the Colonnade of States, is the walled town of Jerusalem, an exact reproduction of the Holy City, which covers eleven acres. Beyond this is the Palace of Agriculture, the largest exhibit building, con-

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STATUE OF ST. LOUIS, BY CHARLES H. NIEHAUS.

and Territories,—Arkansas, Colorado, Wyoming, South Dakota and North Dakota, Iowa, Indian Territory, Minnesota, Kansas, Louisiana, Nebraska, Montana, Missouri, and Oklahoma.

The idea took deep root; the Business Men's League, with its far-reaching commercial influence, assumed responsibility for the movement; the enthusiasm of the States and Territories in the Purchase was aroused; national encouragement was got. It was decided that the Purchase should be commemorated by a world's fair. The people of St. Louis gave \$5,000,000 in personal subscriptions; the city voted a gift of \$5,000,000 more and half of the beautiful Forest Park as a site; Congress gave outright \$5,000,000, and lent to the fair \$4,600,000 more. All of this \$19,600,000 has been spent in making the grounds, building the exhibit palaces, inducing the coöperation of foreign governments and our own States, and in advertising the fair.

The United States Government has, moreover, spent \$1,650,000 on its own exhibit, and the Philippine Islands exhibit represents \$1,000,000. Fifty-one States and Territories will be represented by comprehensive exhibits, and forty-three of them will have buildings on the grounds. The appropriations and subscriptions of these States to the purposes of the fair, varying from Missouri's \$1,000,000 to Maine's \$40,000, amount to \$7,142,000. Missouri spends \$1,000,000.

Most of the foreign governments have large and valuable exhibits, and all the great ones, except Russia, have buildings, the appropriations of the foreign participants having been a few thousand more than seven million dollars. Germany and France have spent more money than any of the other governments, something more than one million dollars each. England, China, and Japan have spent half a million dol-

STATUE OF DE SOTO, BY E. C. POTTER.

taining twenty-one acres. On one side of it is the Horticultural Building, on the other the exhibit building of Forestry, Fish, and Game. Farther over is the Philippine Reservation—forty acres—with its curious adobe dwellings and queer bamboo houses, the Pasig River flowing by one side of it and the walled city of Manila overlooking the water.

By day, this view of the fair transports one with pleasure. By night, when the lines of the avenues and lagoons and palaces are worked out in the fiery effects of electricity, when the music of orchestra or of chorus from within the Festival Hall falls on the ear gently, when the hum of the multitude below comes up faintly, one is profoundly moved.

THE COST OF THE FAIR.

This wonderful exhibition at St. Louis of what the world is and does in the beginning of the twentieth century was planned, at first, as a much more modest thing. It arose through a suggestion made to the people of St. Louis in 1898 by the Missouri Historical Society for some fitting celebration of the centennial of the sale, on April 30, 1803, by Napoleon Bonaparte to Thomas Jefferson of the country west of the Mississippi River, the land known in history as the Louisiana Purchase and now divided into fourteen States

"THE AMERICAN COWBOY AT REST," BY SOLON H. BOROLCH.

lars each, and Mexico nearly as much. The show places on the Pike are as extravagant, apparently, in their cost as in their architecture; some of them, particularly the "Tyrolean Alps" and "Creation," have cost three-quarters of a million dollars each, which is also the cost of building "Jerusalem." Without counting the six or seven million dollars which these concessionaires have spent to construct and equip their places, the cities, States, and foreign governments are paying for their participation in this fair about thirty-five million dollars, more than twice the fifteen million dollars which Jefferson paid for the whole Louisiana Territory. The computation, of course, does not consider the great cost that will fall upon private exhibitors. It is estimated that the insurance on exhibits is more than one hundred million dollars.

HISTORIC AND IDEAL SCULPTURE.

The visitor is not allowed to forget that this fair commemorates the Louisiana Purchase. He may not know, when he comes into the grounds,

ing the cascades. There are two hundred and fifty groups of sculpture about the grounds, with more than one thousand figures. Carl Bitter, the chief of sculpture, has got contributions from every sculptor of distinction in this country, and from some others.

THE FOREIGN AND STATE BUILDINGS.

The foreign governments have their buildings scattered all over the grounds, and this is better than if they were all together, for their architecture is so different from the expository type that the contrast is pleasant, and one likes to see it often as one makes the rounds.

Germany's beautiful Palace of Charlottenberg is at the east end of the Avenue of the Purchase, on an eminence near the Mines Building, and the Palace of the Grand Trianon, the building of France, is at the west end, more than half a mile distant, and near the Forestry Building. England's reproduction of that part of Kensington Palace known as the Orangery is near the Ad

ministration Building, nearly a mile from the entrance. China's curious Palace of Prince Pu Lun, at Peking, is next to England. Russia was building over the way from China when the war with Japan began and work was stopped. The place of Russia was given to the Austrian Building and the Burns Cottage at Ayr. Japan kept on with its building, which is a replica of the Reception Palace of the Mikado at Kyoto, the former capital. Siam and Ceylon have pavilions of striking appearance. Belgium and Brazil have their buildings close together, the first being of very solid construction, with a remarkable quadrilateral dome. Mexico's building is very interesting, and of Spanish type. India intended to reproduce the Taj Mahal, but instead made another tomb, that of Rtmad Dowlah, at Agra. The visitor must enter these various buildings that he may learn. The interiors of all of them are decorated by artists of the country with love and enthusiasm, and the effects are somewhat straining on an ordinary descriptive vocabulary. Many of these foreign buildings have gardens laid out about them, and England, besides, has a bowling-green.

Most of the States have their buildings on the Plateau of States, where the Government Building is, half a mile from the main entrance. Here is the Lone Star Building of Texas, startling, and rather an architectural blunder, because nobody can see its design without hovering over it in a balloon. Mississippi has "Beauvoir," the

home of Jefferson Davis; Louisiana has the old Cabildo, where the transfer of Louisiana was made; New Jersey has Washington's headquarters at Morristown, the prettiest piece of cottage-building on the grounds. Connecticut has the home of Mrs. Lydia H. Sigourney, at Hartford. Over on the west side of the grounds, Tennessee has "The Hermitage," the home of Andrew Jackson; California has the Santa Barbara Mission, and Virginia has "Monticello," the home of Thomas Jefferson, near Charlottesville. The Missouri Building is the largest of all the State buildings, and the Arizona the smallest.

CLASSIC AND POPULAR MUSIC.

The music of this exposition is going to set several standards. It is in the hands of three remarkable men, — George D. Markham, the chief, a very successful business man of large musical appreciation; Ernest R. Kroeger, a composer of international fame; and George W. Stewart, one of the most noted managing musicians in this country. The exposition management appropriated liberally and wisely for this department, for the music that is planned is going to be one of the fair's principal attractions. The largest organ in the world has been built in Festival Hall, and recitals on it will be given by Guilman, Charles Galloway, Eddy, Lemare, Dethier, Carl, Gerritt Smith, and Warren. Symphony concerts will be given in this hall, some conducted by Van der Stucken, some,

it is hoped, by Walter Damrosch. Competitions between male choruses and between mixed choruses from every large city in the United States for large cash prizes will be held there. The choruses will not be allowed to sing their own programmes, but competitive programmes of a very high order have been arranged by Mr. Kroeger and sent to the choral societies who have entered for the prizes. Helmesberger and Komzak, the German conductors, will lead symphony orchestras in the Tyrolean Alps. Mr. Stewart got these two remarkable musicians to come to the exposition by going to Vienna and offering them good cash inducements.

Most of the excellent bands in the world have made contracts to play at the exposition. Sousa's band is beginning the season, and Innes will follow. These two leaders will each conduct both bands at times. There will be, also, Conterno's Band, Creator's Band, the Boston Band, the band of the Garde Republicaine, of Paris; the Grenadier Guards Band, of London; the Philharmonic Band, of Berlin; the Mexican Band, the Banda Rossa, the Philippine band, and Weber's Band. No such variety of band music has ever been arranged before.

THE PHILIPPINE COLONIAL EXHIBIT.

The Philippine Reservation, the largest colonial exhibit ever made, will always draw a crowd. It occupies forty acres, eight acres of it forest, and was created by Dr. William P. Wilson, director of the Philadelphia Commercial Museum. The design is to make known the development and present conditions of the Philippine Islands. It represents Manila and its environs. The visitor enters the walled city

THE NEW JERSEY STATE BUILDING.

(A reproduction of Ford's Old Tavern, at Morristown, which was Washington's Headquarters during the war of the Revolution.)

by a bridge representing the Puente de España, over the Pasig River, here shaped like an arrow-head. The old cannon, with their worm-eaten carriages, which frowned at Dewey are on the walls. The visitor sees, first, a large colored relief map of the Philippine Islands, looking down upon it from a platform. This was made and is explained to him by Father Joseph Algue, director of the Manila Observatory. Then passing the cathedral, the public square, and the markets, he is among the adobe houses of the richer people, built around a *placita*, or court, and the bamboo houses of those in moderate circumstances. All of these houses were built by native workmen. In the poorer ones, the heavy framework is of bamboo about eight inches thick, but very light. This is pegged and laced together by rattan strips, and the roofs are of nipa, the native grass. Not a nail is used in the construction. The reservation is policed by Macabebe scouts, and men and women of several of the tribes live there in their own manner, each tribe within its separate stockade containing their own houses. There are Igorrotes, including some of the head-hunters, and some copper-smelters and blacksmiths; Visayans, the finest textile weavers on the islands; Negritos, the dwarf aborigines of the islands; Moros, who are living in villages built over the water; Bogobos, and several families of tree-dwellers. These Filipinos go about their usual vocations with much indifference to their visitors. So much interest has been shown in this part of the exposition that there are already four restaurants on the reservation.

OTHER FEATURES OF INTEREST.

The immense distances of the fair are overcome by the system of transportation. An elec-

THE CALIFORNIA STATE BUILDING.

(This building is a replica of the Santa Barbara Mission House, and all the features are faithfully reproduced.)

trical railway eight miles long winds in and out about the grounds, going near every one of the exhibit buildings and other points of interest. There are electric launches, as well as gondolas, on the lagoons; electric automobiles, simple, swift, and noiseless, run about the grounds. Gasoline automobiles are not permitted to enter. These methods of transportation are reinforced by wheel-chairs, single and double, pushed by young men, most of them collegians who have applied in sufficient number to the advertisement of this concessionaire. Baby carriages are for hire at the grounds. There is no need of walking unless one like. The grounds are policed by a special force of well-disciplined men, the Jefferson Guards; there is a central station, a hospital, with excellent medical and surgical attention, and a complete system of fire-prevention.

West of the Administration Building is the odd structure where the air-machines will start on their flights. There are prizes of \$150,000 for these contests, the main prize of \$100,000 for the fastest machine and the one most accurately steered. The competition will include air-ships, balloons, gliding machines and aéroplanes, kites, and some devices which have not been named. The course will be marked by captive balloons, and will be two sides of a square. Of course, the contests will be seen from all parts of the grounds, and will be most spectacular.

At the extreme west of the grounds is the athletic arena. The exposition has been generous in giving money to this feature of its entertainment, and the grounds are arranged perfectly for their purpose. The amphitheater will seat fifteen thousand people. The Olympic Games here, during the summer, will bring athletes from every part of the world. This is the first time the games have taken place in the United States, and the contests will develop unusual feats. The classic Marathon race of fifty miles will be, it is said, won by an American this year, as the discus-throwing prize was won, four years ago, from the Greeks. Besides the Olympic Games, all the annual athletic games of consequence will be in this arena, including football, tennis, swimming, running, jumping, diving, cricket, hurling, roque, archery, lacrosse, Turner games, fencing, and wrestling.

The model Indian school, to obtain which Mr. W. A. Jones, Commissioner of Indian Affairs, used his most earnest arguments with Congressional committees, will show the results of the education of the American Indian, and will do credit to its friends. Part of the valuable Indian exhibit at Washington will be there. Just

now, the building is housing the hairy Ainu, the aborigines of Japan, a number of whom have been brought here with the consent of the Japanese Government.

A model military camp of one hundred and eighty acres is being laid out, and is nearly ready. It will be used by the United States army, the National Guard, and semi-military organizations that will meet during the exposition. The tents will go up as soon as the mild weather sets in. The West Point cadets will go into camp there during the summer.

More than three hundred conventions will meet in St. Louis during the year, some of them important to science. So distinguished is the Congress of Arts and Sciences that the exposition has set aside one hundred and fifty thousand dollars with which to pay the expenses of the speakers, many of whom are coming from abroad. There will be Bryce, of London; Lombroso, of Turin; Toy, the Orientalist of Harvard; Butler, of Columbia; Harper, of Chicago; Windelband, of Heidelberg; Dessoir, of Berlin; Picard, of the Sorbonne; Vámbéry, of Budapest; Pais, of Naples; Mahaffy, of Dublin; Zittelmann, of Bonn; Brugman, of Leipzig; Sonnenschein, of Birmingham; Furtwaengler, of Munich; Mendeleeff, of St. Petersburg; Turner, of Oxford; Bower, of Glasgow; Weichert, of Göttingen; Haddon, of Cambridge; Celli, of Rome; Kocher, of Berne, and Nicholson, of Edinburgh.

Near the Tennessee and Illinois buildings is the Temple of Fraternity, designed in an artistic manner by Montrose McArdle. It is intended to be a rendezvous for members of all the fraternal orders in the United States, and the lumbermen have a similar home for their associates,—the House of Hoo Hoo. The log cabin built for General Grant, in which he lived in St. Louis County, is on the grounds. There is a crèche where mothers may leave their children, arranged for six hundred infants. Near the center of the grounds there is an observation wheel, swinging cars around high in the air, from which people may get a bird's-eye view. There is a rose garden where nearly twenty-five hundred varieties of roses will bloom during the season; there is a map of the United States covering several acres, the States marked by walks, the farm products of each State growing, and the proportion of each crop shown by signs. An enormous clock is on the side of a hill, the hours are beds of flowers of different colors, and this will be useful as well as pretty, being visible from a long distance. The Government has a model post-office, where all kinds of post-office work is illustrated, and a gigantic bird-cage, with a

screened walk through it, in which every kind of bird in the United States flies. An interesting place in the Government Building is that where movements of all our war vessels are plotted from day to day on a big chart. In a mining gulch, twelve acres in extent, all the modern methods of mining are being shown,—placer washing, stamping, milling, diamond drilling, and smelting. The magnificent Jubilee presents given to Queen Victoria, which were loaned to the exposition by King Edward through the tactful negotiations of Florence Hayward, one of the exposition's commissioners to England and the cleverest woman attached to the world's fair staff, are in a carefully guarded room. The Pennsylvania Railway has a locomotive-testing exhibit, which always has a crowd about it. Here locomotives of different types are tested by being run at full speed. There is a model city, in which various places of the United States show some special municipal improvement; a natatorium, with laundries, rest pavilions, restaurants everywhere, and, of course, toilet conveniences on every hand.

The Pike, with its hurly-burly of foreign people, its unique buildings, its strange music, and its vivid color of costume and flags, is an exposition in itself. It is a rectangular strip, a mile

long, running half-way up the north side of the grounds, beginning at the main entrance. A wide street is in the center, and on each side of it are expositions, designed primarily for entertainment, ethnological, scientific, musical, and spectacular. Those who saw the Chicago Exposition will remember the Midway. The Pike is an exaggerated Midway brought up to the present time. Small shows have been rigorously excluded. General Cronje is there, with Boer and British soldiers who fought against each other. There are many villages, and in them representatives of nearly every people under the sun, some of them savage and unclad. Hagenbeck has his wonderful trained-animal show there, and Roltaire has a gigantic new spectacle. There are representations of many countries and famous cities,—Japan, Siberia, China, Ireland, Lapland, with its Esquimaux; Patagonia, Polynesia, Asia, with people from Ceylon, Burma, and Persia; Seville, Stambul, and Constantinople. Battle Abbey will depict the great battles of our wars. There will be an infant incubator, submarine divers, imitations of sea battles, with miniature warships, and interesting fire-fighting exhibits; the Galveston flood, a voyage to the North Pole, a trip under the sea in submarine boats, Oriental juggling, athletic feats, dancing, and theaters.

THE MAKERS OF THE FAIR.

Two men made the world's fair possible in the beginning,—David R. Francis, president of the Exposition Company, and Mr. W. H. Thompson, president of the National Bank of Commerce, the treasurer of the Exposition Company. Mr. Francis has been mayor of St. Louis, governor of Missouri, and Secretary of the Interior under President Cleveland. He was a successful man, a rich and influential man, a man of large activities, when the Purchase celebration was proposed, and he took the presidency with genuine reluctance, the general demand upon him making it seem a public duty. He has devoted himself to the fair, and has not only been strong in emergencies, but a daily worker of the utmost vigor and unusual grasp of detail. He must be credited with the help the Government has given the fair, and his energetic tour of Great Britain and Europe, enlisting the interest of foreign governments when they seemed a bit slow, was an excellent example of the forceful methods that have made his large following of practical people who like to see things done well.

Mr. Thompson is a man of great tenacity of purpose and great financial power. In the early days of the fair, when everything depended on the local subscription, money was coming in slowly, interest was flagging, and committees were discouraged. It was proposed to drop the plan to hold a world's fair and to build a monument instead. Mr. Thompson at once vetoed the suggestion. It was urged that the people of St. Louis would give no more money, and a million dollars of the first five million was still lacking. Mr. Thompson said he would get that million. He sat at his desk and thought for some days, and then sent for fifty men, one after the other, telling each that he wanted him to guarantee twenty thousand dollars more. The fifty did it, the million dollars was secured, and the whole movement was inspired.

THE TRANSPORTATION ARRANGEMENTS.

Aside from the exhibits, the fair is still incomplete in many essential details, but the lack is hardly felt, so satisfying is the enormous whole. Transportation arrangements show efficient management by the railways and the street-car companies. A year ago, this situation seemed grave. Transportation men pondered. Then it became clear that the condition demanded the attention of the best men the railways had, and these took charge. Joseph Ramsey, president of the Wabash, went on the grounds himself. William S. McChesney, president of the Termini-

nal Railway, worked day and night with his engineers. The world's fair took C. F. Hilleary from the Big Four and made him its director of transportation, and the Big Four added some ideas to the work by sending W. P. Deppe to St. Louis in place of Mr. Hilleary. Execution went hand-in-hand with the planning, and the result has been comfort and convenience to visitors to the fair.

The main entrance to the fair is at the corner of Lindell Boulevard and De Boliviere Avenue. (Don't try to pronounce this name as you would in Paris. Just forget the Berlitz School and call it "De Boliver," and the cabman will treat you as one to the manner born and be gentle with you.) At this main entrance, most of the railway passengers are discharged. Many trains from the East run through to this gate, others come into the famous Union Station, which with its enormous promenade and decorated waiting-rooms is itself an interesting sight, and surrender their passengers to the comfortable little trains which shuttle between the station and the main fair entrance, running on twelve-hundred-foot blocks, one each way every two or three minutes, each train carrying one thousand people. Some trains from the West land their passengers on the south side of the grounds; others deliver them to the shuttle trains at the station. The street cars run to every gate, with a capacity of fifty thousand people an hour. The steam and street railways have spent twenty million dollars on the admirable system they have established.

THE HOUSING OF VISITORS.

Two years ago, also, the estimate of the hotel accommodations in the city disquieted the responsible men of St. Louis. Foreign capital seemed reluctant to enter the hotel field. The Business Men's League opened a local subscription for a new hotel, and a million dollars was got and spent in building the Jefferson. That evidence of confidence in the situation was all that was needed. Hotels, permanent and temporary, sprung up as sweet peas in summer do. After that, there was talk of extortion by hotels. The Business Men's League got signed statements as to rates from the principal hotels, and printed a reassuring comparison with the hotel rates of other cities, and the fair built an enormous hotel in the grounds—the Inside Inn—whose rate of \$2 a day, European plan, including admission to the grounds, regulates the prices at other hotels. Then, to secure a public proclamation of the ability of St. Louis to properly house the people, the Business Men's League went to Washington, and, presenting facts and figures to the Democratic National Committee,

THE PALACES OF ELECTRICITY, MANUFACTURES, AND EDUCATION.

induced that body to send the national convention to St. Louis, with its fifty thousand attendants. I have before me now a list of one hundred and thirty hotels, eighty of them so good that I would send my best friend to any one of them if my other best friends had filled my own house. These hotels, excluding ten which are fashionable and expensive, will charge no more than the Inside Inn, some of them not so much. On this same list, whose accuracy is guaranteed by the World's Fair Company, are many apartment-houses and boarding-houses, with excellent service, the rates of many of them as low as seventy-five cents a day. In fact, the capacity of the St. Louis hotels alone will not be taxed during the exposition. Counting the temporary ones, they have now an unfilled capacity of more than one hundred thousand people. There will be many people who will come to St. Louis having made no arrangements, many arriving at night, and they will go at once to some of the noted hotels of which they have heard. Of course, they will find these hotels full, and they will not get themselves unpacked in a pleasant room without spending that night and part of the next day uncomfortably. Effort is being made to save even the careless people from discomfort. The Business Men's League and the world's fair have official and free bureaus of information which secure accommodations for inquirers and protect them from imposition. So has the Inter-State Merchants' Association, and the Credit Men's Association; the Young Men's Christian Association, and the King's Daughters; the Knights of Columbus,

and the National Educational Association. The leading business men, at much individual expense, are conducting similar bureaus. The Princeton alumni have leased a large, well-fitted, many-roomed mansion, where they will provide for Princeton men, and, indeed, any university man, by a plan which will secure economy and good service. Letters addressed even vaguely to any of these organizations will be put into the right hands by the post-office authorities.

It will contribute much to the pleasure of those who are planning a visit to the fair to read some of the best articles and books that have been printed about the exposition and about the country and the people of the Louisiana Purchase. The following are chosen from much of this kind of literature, as both entertaining and instructive:

"The Greatest World's Fair." By D. R. Francis, president of the exposition, with excellent pencil drawings by Vernon Howe Bailey. In *Everybody's Magazine* for April.

"The Architecture of the St. Louis Fair." By Montgomery Schuyler, with colored drawings by Jules Guerin. In *Scribner's* for April.

"Lafitte, of Louisiana." By Mary Devereux. Published by Little, Brown & Co., Boston.

"In the Eagle's Talon." By Mrs. Sheppard Stevens. Published by Little, Brown & Co., Boston.

"Sally of Missouri." By R. A. Young. Published by McClurg, Phillips & Co., New York.

"Tennessee Todd." By G. W. Ogden. Published by A. S. Barnes & Co., New York.

"A Little Girl in Old St. Louis." By Amanda M. Douglass. Published by Dodd, Mead & Co., New York.

THE ART EXHIBITION AT ST. LOUIS.

BY HALSEY C. IVES.

(Chief of the Department of Art.)

THE Palace of Art, at the exposition, has purposely been placed far from the distractions of the exhibit buildings and near to the forest. Close by is Festival Hall, where the classic music of the exposition will be heard.

The four structures devoted to the Department of Art comprise a central building of brick and stone, which it is intended shall become a permanent art museum; a building at each end, of brick ornamented with staff, and a Sculpture Pavilion, all forming a quadrangle surrounding a garden, with flowers, statuary, fountains, and shrubs. The three main buildings were designed by Mr. Cass Gilbert, and the Sculpture Pavilion by Mr. E. L. Masquery.

The Art Department of the Universal Exposition of 1904 has a broader classification than has prevailed at previous international expositions. It has effaced the line which heretofore has separated "fine art," so called, from "industrial art." Under this classification, all art work—whether on canvas, in marble, plaster, wood, metal, glass, porcelain, textile, or other material—in which the artist-producer has worked with conviction and knowledge is recognized as equally deserving of respect in proportion to its worth from the standpoints of inspiration and technique. To carry out this idea, a special group covering "original objects of art workmanship" has been inserted. In this group will be exhibited art work in glass, earthenware, metal, leather, wood, and textiles, as well as examples of artistic book-binding. For the exhibition of these objects, special galleries have been provided. Thus, for the first time in the history of international expositions in this country, American craftsmen have taken advantage of the broader classification, which includes all forms of artistic representation in which individual artists (or groups of artists working coöperatively) have expressed their thoughts in whatever medium they may have selected.

The Applied Arts Division is intended to provide for the proper exhibition of work by artists in the applied arts, or in the arts and crafts. At the time of the Chicago Exposition, the arts and crafts movement had not made itself sufficiently felt to provide workers who could take advantage of a similar classification, but the last ten years has seen a remarkable development of

interest and activity in the revival of the handicrafts; to-day, hundreds of applied-art workers in this country are doing work worthy of such recognition as has been granted them in the exposition of 1904. Whatever stands for broadening and raising the standards of life can expect final recognition in this country, and we believe that at St. Louis the American people will realize fully, perhaps for the first time, that the instinctive impulse for artistic expression in various forms of art work is a growing force in our land, and one likely to have no small part in our national development. The notable result of the broader classification at Chicago was the admittance of Japan, for the first time, in the art department of an international exposition; and now Japan, England, France, Germany, Holland, and other countries have coöperated with us in this work, and will show, in their own sections, examples of the best work of modern craftsmen abroad. This opportunity for the comparison of the achievement of American artists with that of leading applied-art workers of European nations will be of great value to our craftsmen, and one that they are not likely to neglect.

The exhibits of the United States section are classed under three heads,—(1) a contemporaneous division, in which is shown works produced since the Chicago Exposition, in 1893, and in which all exhibits may be in competition for awards, consisting of gold, silver, and bronze medals, and a grand prize; (2) a retrospective division, which includes works produced between 1803, the year of the Louisiana Purchase, and 1893; and (3) a loan division, devoted to especially interesting works borrowed from institutions and private owners, which may represent any period in the history of art, and which will comprise only master-works of the highest artistic character. Ample preparations for comprehensive collections in each of these divisions have been made, and space has been allotted for all of them in the central pavilion. The three pavilions devoted to the foreign sections are already completed. France, England, Germany, Holland, Belgium, Japan, and other countries have decorated their allotted sections in a characteristic manner. These buildings are not intended to be permanent, but are substantially fireproof.

THE PALACE OF FINE ARTS.

The central pavilion, built of buff brick and Bedford cut stone, will be devoted entirely to the United States section. The applied arts exhibits,—sculpture, architecture, and paintings by American artists,—will be installed therein. The fourth pavilion will be used exclusively for foreign sculpture.

In addition to the United States section, twenty foreign governments will be represented by exhibits in the department, as follows: France, Germany, Great Britain, Holland, Belgium, Russia, Italy, Austria, Japan, Mexico, Canada, Hungary, Sweden, Cuba, Brazil, Argentina, Venezuela, Bulgaria, Portugal, and Ceylon. Space in which to form national sections has been assigned to each of these nations. There has also been reserved space for an international section, in which will be installed works by artists in countries not officially represented,—such as Denmark, Norway, and Spain. Applications for space exceeded by 40 per cent. the total amount available in the four pavilions of the Art Palace. It is to be regretted that several of these countries could not be allowed the space asked for. This, however, means that the standard of excellence in the objects shown is higher than usual, and that the representation throughout is most creditable.

In the work of forming the United States section, a number of State commissions have shown special interest in the representation of their own States in the department. Massachusetts early set apart the sum of \$8,500 for the representation of her art workers. This action caused effort on the part of other Eastern States toward this same end, with the result that New York has granted \$10,000 in aid of her artists, and Pennsylvania \$7,000. In the West, California, Colorado, Iowa, and Utah have taken official interest in the work of their artists.

The installation in the galleries of the art pa-

vilions began on March 1, and is still going on, although the exhibit, at this writing, is in an advanced state of readiness. The arrangement of such varied collections of art objects presents difficulties unknown to the layman. Not only must each picture be placed in its best light, but each wall, panel, or group in the gallery must be so composed as to present an harmonious whole. Each panel must possess a pictorial value. This is a most difficult task with the heterogeneous material at hand in any collection, no matter how grand its components. For this reason, no one man can alone attend to any work of installation; there must always be a "fresh eye" to criticise the result produced by the tired worker.

There is every evidence now that visitors to the exposition will have opportunities for studying the products of the art workers of every important country of the world where art and artists are recognized as factors in the development of the civilization of our time.

The executive staff of the department which has brought its work to success comprises many men of recognized ability in artistic and executive work, among them Mr. Charles M. Kurtz, assistant chief of the Department of Art, who occupied a similar position at the World's Columbian Exposition; Mr. Will H. Low, superintendent of the loan division; Mr. George Julian Zolnay, superintendent of the division of sculpture, and Mr. F. A. Whiting, superintendent of the division of applied arts. The executive is under obligations to the leading artists and art-lovers of the country, who have with one accord aided in the preliminary work of the United States section in every possible way.

In the galleries of the United States section will be installed representative examples of nearly every form of art work that has flourished in our country during the period that has elapsed

since the Columbian Exposition. The total number of exhibits accepted by the national juries of selection is not so great as at Chicago, but the standard of judgment will be found to be much higher.

Among works in the French section representing the older masters of that school are those of Carolus Duran, Bouguereau, Henner, Robert Fleury, Detaille, Flameng, Puvis de Chavannes, and Lhermitte. From the younger men, who are represented as coming masters, are works by Simon, Cottet, Dauchez, Ménard, Prinnet, Besnard, and Carrière. The impressionist school is represented by Claud-Monet, Renoir, Degas, Lepine, and others. The French sculpture section has especially strong representative works by Rodin, Saint-Marceaux, Mercier, Bartholdi, and Gardet.

Owing to the limited space that it was possible to assign to the Austrian section, only a portion of the representative collection by artists of that country will be found in the Art Palace. The greater part of the Austrian art exhibit will be installed in the Austrian national pavilion.

The Hungarian artists will also divide their collection. Although three galleries have been assigned to this school in the west pavilion, it was found necessary to seek space for the installation of a large number of strong examples of Hungarian art work in the Hungarian national section, in another department. Among them will be found works by Munkacsy and other artists well known in our country, and also by many whose works have not heretofore been seen in the United States.

Those who have become familiar with the art section of Great Britain pronounce it superior in character to the British section at Chicago, and much broader and more comprehensive than the British display at Paris, in 1900. Works of art by men of world-wide reputation, such as Millais, Leighton, Burne-Jones, Clausen, La Thangue, Orchardson, Watts, Alma-Tadema, Herkomer, Luke Fildes, and Macauley-Stevenson, are installed in the British section. The art committee, it would seem, has been successful in bringing together examples of nearly every phase of art work produced in England. The display of British sculpture is confined to works easy of transportation. A carefully selected collection, however, has been brought together of works suited for installation in the

various galleries of the British section. Among them are works by Brock, Frampton, Colton, Reynolds-Stevens, and others of equal prominence.

In the applied-art division of the British section, an opportunity, for the first time in our country, will be afforded to study the results of the arts and crafts movement in England during the last ten years.

A representative collection will be found in the Swedish section. Nowhere in Europe is art more patriotic than in that northern country. Since as early as 1880, a constant effort has been made to preserve the national spirit in the individual work of artists who have received their training in foreign schools. Upon returning to their own country, they are urged to enhance the artistic value of the local atmosphere by giving to the younger artists the benefit of their training. These efforts have resulted in the development of a distinctively national art. Its influence was clearly shown in the collection brought together in the Swedish national section at Chicago. The same national spirit is shown in the collection installed in the present exposition.

In the Holland section, a more complete idea of the art of that country may be gained than has been possible in any former universal exposition, either in the United States or in Europe, outside of Holland itself. The collection is made up of one hundred and seventy examples of oil paintings, seventy-five water-colors, and an equal number of lithographs, etchings, and engravings. The collection of sculpture is restricted to such works as could be installed in the picture galleries. The Holland commission has conformed to the classification of the department to the extent of including art works as expressed in Delft and Rosenberg ware; also in wood, silver, and copper. The commissioner-general, Mr. Mesdag, reports that in making this selection "the Holland government committee did not admit a single work of art that would not deserve particular attention from the art amateur and the general public."

The Japanese exhibit displays the well-known characteristics of Japanese art, and there are also oil paintings by younger artists done in the European method. Among the leading artists are Kampo Araki, Masao Gejo, Gaho Hashimoto, Keinen Imao, and Giokushi Kawabata. The sculptural exhibit in bronze, ivory, and wood is illustrative of scenes in Japanese life.



SOME REPRESENTATIVE JAPANESE PERIODICALS.

- (1) *Tokio Keizai Zasshi*, weekly; (2) *Nichinichi Shimbun*, daily; (3) *Toyo Keizai Zasshi*, weekly; (4) *Taiyo*, monthly; (5) *Toho Kyokai Kaho*, monthly; (6) *Osaka Asahi Shimbun*, daily; (7) *Kokumin Shimbun*, daily; (8) *Jiji Shimpō*, daily; (9) *Nichi-Ro-Sempo*, three times a month, (the report of the Russo-Japanese war).

WHAT THE PEOPLE READ IN JAPAN.

THE statement that there are three times as many children in the elementary schools in Japan as there are in Russia, and that the Japanese are essentially a reading public, has come rather as a surprise to Americans, who know so little about the intellectual attainments of Asiatic peoples. There are all kinds of magazines, monthlies, weeklies, and dailies published in the Mikado's Empire, issued with editorial insight and by publication methods which will bear comparison with those of any Occidental country. This development of periodical publishing is young. It was only some seven or eight years ago that the modern printing press was adopted, but magazine and newspaper publishing is now a promising enterprise in Japan.

Tokio, the capital, naturally publishes the most influential periodicals. The *Taiyo* is a monthly magazine of popular interest, fully illustrated, with a circulation of more than one hundred thousand. The *Taiyo* was originally composed of a number of different monthly magazines published by one company, and the combination

is nicknamed the *Exhibition Magazine*. It has a commercial supplement, printed in English, known as the *Sun Trade Journal*. The *Tokio Keizai Zasshi* (*Tokio Economic Journal*) is a weekly, the oldest publication in the empire, devoted to economics and finances. Its editor and proprietor, the Hon. Yukichi Taguchi, is a member of the National House of Representatives, and one of the best-known economists of Japan. He advocates the principle of free trade. The *Toyo Keizai Zasshi* (*Oriental Economic Journal*) is the other Tokio weekly, devoted to economics and finances. It is edited by Dr. Tameyuki Amano. He advocates the protective policy; and the text-books on economics used in the schools of the empire are largely of his preparation. The *Toyo Zasshi* is only a few years old. There are a number of religious journals, the best known of which is the *Keisei*, of Tokio. The *Kyōiku Koho* is an educational weekly of the capital. Most of these are illustrated.

There are four hundred and eighty daily newspapers in the empire, of which eleven have a

ganda ;" the *Japan Mail*, weekly and daily, published in English and owned by an Englishman ; and the *Japan Times*, published in English, but owned and edited by a Japanese.

Osaka, the commercial center of the empire, has two dailies with large circulation,—*Osaka Asahi* (*Morning Sun*), the most widely circulated daily in Japan, and the *Osaka Mainichi* (*Osaka Daily*). These two are influential papers, politically and commercially. The *Hinode Shimbun* (*Rising Sun News*) is a national daily of Kioto.

The Japanese press is showing a rapid evolution toward Western models. The events of the present war are responsible for "extras," which are sold in the streets by newsboys, or rather newsmen, in true American fashion, as shown in the accompanying illustration. The newsmen are bare-limbed, with a *tenugui*, or sort of napkin, around the head, and a small bell at the belt, which rings as they run. The special news supplement, or "extra," is known as the *gogwai*. The text in a Japanese newspaper, or any other periodical, begins at the first line at the head of the right column and reads down. The first line gives the name of the paper, the date, the price, postal instructions, etc.; the second line, the "catch heading" of the extra. The reading is done vertically, just as in the title. The interesting and significant portions are emphasized by black points at the side, which serve the purpose of large type or italics. Following are the headings and the first paragraph of the first war extra of the *Jiji Shimpō*, of Tokio, dated February 10 :

GREAT VICTORY OF THE IMPERIAL FLEET.

(Special telegram from Shiho to the *Jiji Shimpō*.)

In a great naval battle between the Japanese and the Russians, at Port Arthur, three of the principal Russian vessels of war have been utterly destroyed.

Editorial opinion from Japanese journals is quoted on another page of this issue of the REVIEW.

A TOKIO NEWSBOY CRYING WAR EXTRAS.

national reputation. Sixteen dailies are published in Tokio alone, all of them issued in the morning. The three most famous are the *Jiji Shimpō* (*Times*), perhaps the best representative of the dailies. It has an enviable reputation for prompt and reliable national and foreign news. *Kokumin Shimbun* (*National News*) is a dignified newspaper of general interest. It is edited with high literary touch. The *Nichinichi* (*Daily News*) is dignified and influential. The *Tokio Asahi Shimbun* (*Morning Sun News*) is one of the popular newsy journals of the empire. The *Hochi Shimbun* (*Dispatch*) is one of the organs of the Progressive party, as are also the *Yomiuri Shimbun* (*Reader*) and the *Tokio Mainichi Shimbun* (*Daily News*). The *Nihon* (*Japan*) is the daily most popular with the students. Other publications of the capital are the *Heimin Shimbun* (*Commoner*), "a weekly journal of Socialist propa-

JAPAN ON THE AMERICAN ATTITUDE.

EVEN to the Japanese people, who have always looked upon the United States as the foster-father of the New Japan, the American interest and general sympathy in the war between Japan and Russia have come as somewhat of a surprise. The magazines and newspapers of the island empire recount the history of their country, and recite the reasons why Japan is fighting America's battle as well as her

own—for a free commercial race and the Western idea of progress. The hearty expressions of appreciation for American sympathy are interesting. The *Jiji Shimpō*, of Tokio, which is to Japan and the Orient what the *London Times* is to England and the European Continent, in an editorial in its issue of February 14, under the heading "*Bei Koku no Kō i*" ("The Good Will of America"), said :

"CAN NEVER EXPRESS SUFFICIENT GRATITUDE."

The relations between America and our land have been greatly different from those of any other countries. Beginning with the kindly coercion which America brought to bear upon our country in the days of over forty years ago, she has always tempted and encouraged us, both openly and in a gentler, indirect way, to enter into the goodly company of great powers which are the torch-bearers of civilization. And for this reason we have never forgotten the friendship of America, as we would never forget a great and gracious virtue. And so it has come to pass that the relations of the two countries are like unto those between the members of a home, wherein the younger pays his respects to the elder and prays for his happiness on one hand, and, on the other, the elder holds the younger in affection and takes delight in his development. And all through the Russo-Nippon [the Japanese call their country Nippon, never Japan] negotiations, and in the war of to-day, America, from beginning to end, has made no secret of her sympathy for our land. To be sure, the commercial interests in Manchuria of the two countries are identical. But the American sympathy cannot be explained away on the basis of self-interests pure and simple. Has not Russia been ever reminding America of her willingness to enter into an understanding which would work for the interests of America, and through which America could receive special and advantageous treatment in Manchuria?

Unquestionably, it would have been to the particular interest of America to take advantage of such offers, and it might be that, through just such understanding with Russia, she might have seen the strong possibility of fencing out the keen competition of the British and Nipponese activities in Manchuria, and have been able to grasp in her own hands the commercial supremacy in North China. She has always declined to accept Russia's advances. From this, one can hardly escape the conclusion that America would rather throw her fate in with us, who, although in a modest way, are striving to the utmost to force the path of Anglo-American civilization and commerce, along the path of rectitude and integrity, across the far East, than to receive the special favors and privileges from the happy homeland of duplicity, of many imperial assurances, and of infinite lies.

The *Jiji Shimpō* goes on to comment on the offers of many Americans to help Japan as army nurses, and on the cheerful acceptance on the part of the United States Government of the troublesome task of looking after the safety and interests of the Japanese in Russia, and concludes:

"*Izure mo Beikoku no kan mizu ga waga kuni ni mampuku no dojo o hyoshi tsutsu aru no kakushoto shite wagahai Nippon kokumin no kansha ni taezaru tokoro nari.*"—"All of which are positive and indisputable proof of the heartfelt sympathy of both the government and the people of America, and for which we, the people of Nippon, can never express sufficient gratitude and appreciation."

The *Nichi-Ro Sempo*, of Tokio, whose entire object in life is the faithful report of the occur-

ences of the present war, spares no adjectives in praising the heroic efforts of Dr. Anita Newcomb McGee. It says:

We have been informed that Mrs. McGee, of America, is offering her services to look after the sick and the wounded of the Nippon army. She is more than willing to cross many thousand miles of land and foreign waves to devote herself to this heroic task.

Then it speaks briefly of Dr. McGee's record in the Spanish-American and the Boxer wars, and also of her definite arrangement with Minister Takahira, at Washington, with the sanction of her own government, and continues:

It will not be long, therefore, before we will have the pleasure of seeing the heroic lady in our own country in the full vigor of her labor of mercy. It is piously to be hoped that we in Nippon may appreciate the full value of so noble a life.

The *Taiyo*, of Tokio, which combines light literature with the discussion of current topics of interest, is one of the most popular monthlies in Nippon. In its March issue, it says:

America is the home of the open-door policy and of the maintenance of the integrity of China, and for these great principles Nippon has taken up arms against Russia. America has strained every effort to open Manchuria to the world's commerce, hand-in-hand with Nippon. Her commercial treaties with China were signed at the same time as ours. It would be difficult for America to keep herself from showing sympathy with our course. We are told that the public sentiment of America is completely on the side of Nippon. Her enthusiasm for Nippon's victory at the opening of the war was such that one would have supposed that America herself were in open war with Russia,—*Adakamo jikoku ga susunde Rokoku to tatakaeruto dotsu no kan o nashi.*

JAPAN AND THE PHILIPPINES.

The *Kokumin Shimbun*,—whose editor, Tokutomi Iichiro, is a distinguished and picturesque figure among the authors of New Nippon, and which, with the *Jiji*, is counted among the most weighty organs,—in its issue of March 1, prints more than a column and a half on the American attitude on the war. It opens with comments on the editorial remarks of the *New York Times* and *Tribune*, both of which echo the American sympathy with Nippon in no uncertain tones. Then it goes on to say:

What is singular is the present attitude of the New York ———. Toward the close of last year, the attitude of the paper was impartial, and one might almost say that some of the editorials of these days were somewhat pro-Nipponese. But with the beginning of the year, there has been a sudden change. It did not like the war map which was published by a London daily. The said unfortunate map printed the Philippine Islands in the same color as that of Nippon. And from this unhappy blunder of a London printer the

dignified ——— jumps to the conclusion that in the case of victory over Russia, Japan means to swallow the American possession as well. If Nippon were so wild and foolish as to take that nightmare in the southern seas off of the hands of America, one might be pardoned to suppose that Nippon ought to receive a word or two of thanks from the American press, which

certainly costs nothing. Instead of thanks, the ——— turns upon us its heavy thunders,—to such a hopeless depth of ingratitude has it fallen, all for the sake of Russia! What in the name of sense has Nippon, government or people, to do with the blunder of a London paper?

A. K.

THE EFFECT OF THE WAR ON THE INTERNAL AFFAIRS OF RUSSIA.

NOTWITHSTANDING the stricter censorship due to the war with Japan, the periodical press of Russia is devoting much space to the discussion of the present and future effect of the conflict on the social and economic life of the nation. "Popular sentiment," says the *Vyestnik Evropy* (St. Petersburg) for March, "reminds us of the popular feeling at the time of the last Turkish war rather than that during the Crimean War."

In one respect we note even some progress. Before the outbreak of hostilities, the warlike spirit was not strongly apparent either in society or in the press, quite different from that manifestation of Chauvinism in 1876-77. This war was not hailed as a blessing. Its dangers and difficulties were not belittled or passed over in silence; and various opinions were expressed as to the necessity and the effect of a rupture, quite freely, in so far as freedom of expression is possible with us. Upon the declaration of war, however, the willingness of society to share the burdens was universally manifested. The present war, moreover, certainly aroused a national consciousness in all classes of the Russian people, who are displaying a depth of devotion to the empire. We sincerely believe that this is destined to dispel many prejudices which hinder the expansion of creative thought. It may be that the peasantry, out of whose midst comes now, as ever, the great mass of the defenders of the fatherland, will live to see the completion of the work of emancipation that was begun under the influence of the Crimean War. The *zemstvo* [rural elective body], everywhere hastening to meet the needs of the country, will prove its claim to the place assigned to it in the epoch of great reforms. Society, voluntarily sharing the cares of the government, will be acknowledged mature both in point of morals and intelligence.

THE EFFECT ON FINANCES.

Turning to the economic condition of the country as affected by the war, the *Russkoye Ekonomicheskoye Obozvyeniye*, a St. Petersburg monthly devoted to sociology and economics, describes the demoralization of the Russian financial market.

Various stocks, securities, and even government

bonds, declined rapidly. The holders of securities seemed to have lost their heads, and it required the authoritative statement of the minister of finance to reassure them somewhat. Thus, government bonds dropped from 90½ to 93, and rents fell from 92-94 to 83, and other dividend-paying papers fell still lower. The shares of coal companies, and of engineering concerns, declined with the rest, owing to lack of confidence on the part of the public. This was admitted by the minister of finance. He attempted to show that, while the war might lead to temporary embarrassment, it could not permanently weaken the economic power of Russia.

In its February issue, the *Ekonomicheskoye Obozvyeniye* takes a more optimistic view of the financial situation. It points out that the hope of the foreign speculators that Russia would attempt to keep up the prices of stock artificially has not been realized. "As soon as it became apparent that such an economic error would not be committed, a new demand for Russian securities arose, and resulted in a new influx of gold. In order to protect the gold reserve of the country, the Russian Government bank raised the rates of discount, in February, 1 per cent."

The *Russkiya Vyedomosti* of March 11 is inclined to believe that the war will not seriously affect the foreign trade of Russia. "Should the price of some raw materials be reduced, the reduction would merely lead to increased exports. On the other hand, the importation of costly manufactured articles would probably be checked." Another item in favor of the Russian balance, according to the *Vyedomosti*, would be the decrease in the number of Russians traveling and residing abroad during the war.

HOW THE PEASANTS SUFFER.

In spite of these assurances by the ministers, however, the economic condition of Russia is far from satisfactory, as is evidenced by the following statements in the *Narodnoye Khozyaistvo*, another economic review published in St. Petersburg. It expresses deep concern over the

evident disorganization of the very foundation of national life.

The symptoms are becoming more marked of the declining prosperity of the rural population, of the stagnant condition of industrial life, and with it the more strained relations between the employees and the factory administrations, the more evident antagonism between various nationalities in the empire, and the uncertainty of the war and its final result; these have created an atmosphere of deep gloom.

This review fearlessly avails itself of the opportunity to criticise the existing order of things. "The Russian people," it says, "have evidently outgrown the narrow limits of bureaucratic guardianship which prevent their normal development, and if these limits are not judiciously extended they will in the end be unable to confine the constantly growing power of internal pressure."

All of the Russian papers describe at length the fervent patriotism of the Russian people as expressed in public prayer and in contributions to the war fund. The peasantry is doing its full share, not only in contributing the great mass of the soldiers, but also in paying, by direct and indirect taxes, and now by voluntary contributions also, the enormous cost of the war. In the war with Japan, says the *Vyestnik Evropy* (March),

as well as in all of our preceding wars, the greatest sacrifices unavoidably fall to the share of the common people,—i.e., our peasantry. Less than ever, therefore, can we read without disgust articles like that in the *Grazhdanin*, of Prince Mescherski, which insists on the utility and benefit to be derived from inflicting corporal punishment on the peasants. This article libels the village when it credits it with favoring flogging. . . . The discord is the more shocking at this time when Russia finds herself in the hour of trial. If the common danger cannot make impossible the defense of the worst of inequalities, what can be expected in times of peace from the adherents of dry-rot, whose main storehouse is the reactionary press?

The *Russkiya Vyedomosti*, in its issue of March 9, notes with regret that the municipal administration of Moscow, in subscribing a million rubles to the war fund, has found it necessary to do so partly at the expense of the elementary public schools. The problem of providing adequate school facilities has occupied the attention

of the city authorities for decades. It was found necessary to turn away large numbers of applicants for admission at the beginning of every school year, and the city attempted to solve the problem in 1904 by appropriating a sum of money for the establishment of twenty new schools. On account of the war, however, only five are to be established, and the rest of the money is to be contributed to the war fund.

ANTI-JEWISH AGITATION.

The Russo-Jewish weeklies, the *Buduschnost* (the Future) and the *Voskhod* (the Dawn), comment, in their editorials of March 5 and 12, on the unremitting campaign of the reactionary organs, the *Novoye Vremya*, the *Znamya*, and others, against the Jews. Various rumors are spread among the people concerning the alleged sympathy shown by the Jews for the Japanese. For example, in Bakhmut, the Jewish furrier Abramovich was accused of having sent three carloads of fur coats to the Japanese army. In another town, the rumor was spread that the Jews were plotting to blow up a bridge on the Sizran-Vyazem railroad; or that the Jews export gold, that they are buying up cavalry horses for the Japanese army, that they have started subscriptions for the construction of war vessels for Japan, that they influenced England and the United States against Russia, etc. Says the *Voskhod*:

It is not in our interest to advocate greater limitations of the freedom of the press, yet even in free countries it is considered a criminal offense to incite to murder and riot, even though it be done for national and patriotic reasons. In Italy, a Catholic congregation was forbidden, recently, to give instruction to the youth, because it had permitted the staging of an anti-Semitic play in its hall. In Germany, where the official class is by no means distinguished for its philosemitism, agitators of anti-Semitic disturbances, even though they be editors of papers, are sentenced to months of imprisonment. In France, even, such agitators have been fined for boycotting Jewish firms. But in Russia such agitation is incomparably more dangerous than in other countries, because of the greater ignorance of the masses, and because the Jews are isolated even by the law itself. Is it right to permit such agitation in a country which is governed by law; is it in the interests of the country, especially in such unsettled times, to awaken the beast in man?



CLIMATIC FEATURES OF THE FIELD OF THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

BY FRANK WALDO, PH.D.

(Author of "Modern Meteorology" in the "Contemporary Science Series.")

WITH the opening of the Russo-Japanese war, for the first time within almost a century climatic conditions have entered as an important feature, perhaps a controlling factor, among the elements to be considered in the conduct of the war. Not since Napoleon's fatal campaign, and never since the introduction of the railroad and the modern army commissary and arms, has a large army had to face really serious climatic obstacles. It so happens that the present war is occurring in a region of the most marked contrasts, and when the avenues of approach of the combatants to the actual battleground are considered we find a condition of affairs climatic that could not be duplicated in any other inhabited portion of the globe. It is of interest to consider these conditions as they may affect the movements of the combatants.

The climate of the whole region affected by the war is largely controlled by the continental atmospheric conditions in the interior of Siberia and their resulting monsoon effects, which extend to a distance of thousands of miles from this center.

Throughout the whole of eastern Asia, the rule is a summer rainy season and a relatively dry winter. The summers are in general warm, with monsoon winds blowing from the ocean toward the interior of the continent, and the winters are cold, with the monsoon blowing from the continent seaward, and thus carrying the cold dry air of the interior to the coast.

Thanks to the system of weather observation in Japan, which owes its completeness to Professor Mendenhall, we know the climate of Japan about as well as we do that of New England for the past twenty-five years. Russia has carried on systematic meteorological observations in Siberia for upward of half a century, and has carefully published the results. For Manchuria and Korea, however, we have comparatively few accurate meteorological observations.

There are three distinct conditions that have to be considered in viewing this matter,—the climate of the field of war, that of the Russian approach, and that of the Japanese approach; and to these must be added the relative powers

of acclimatization of the troops of the belligerents.

While the field of active warfare has as yet been confined to Korea and southern and eastern Manchuria, it is quite certain to extend to northern Manchuria and the Russian provinces of the Amur; but even in the case of the most pronounced success of the Japanese, it will hardly overrun these extreme limits. It must be remembered, however, that this area is nearly as extensive as that part of the United States east of the Mississippi River.

The climate of the islands of Japan and the Russian island of Saghalin is moister and subjected to less extremes of temperature than the mainland on the west. At Hakodate, the temperatures, on the average, range from 85° F. in summer to + 2° F. (average) in winter; at Niigata, from 95° F. to 24° F.; at Tokio, from 94° F. to 20° F.; and at Decime, from 90° F. to 28° F. The highest and lowest temperatures observed at Tokio are 98° F. and 15° F., respectively.

While the winter in Japan is long, lasting from five to seven months, yet severe cold does not occur. The Japanese are thus, on the whole, unaccustomed to the low winter temperatures of the Trans-Baikal and Amur regions, or even of Manchuria.

On the islands Nippon, Yezo, and Saghalin there is a decrease in the rainfall toward the north. In southern Nippon an annual precipitation of 175 cm. occurs, and in Saghalin only 54 cm. On the west coast of Nippon the winter rains are copious, although most of the precipitation occurs from September to December, inclusive. On the east coast, the winter rainfall is less, and during the remainder of the year fairly well distributed. The warm ocean current Kuro Siwo warms the west coast of Nippon, but not the east coast, so that there is really little difference in the temperatures on the two sides.

In winter, the west coast has much cloudy, rainy weather, and the winds from the north and west blow with such great violence over the Sea of Japan that navigation becomes very dangerous, and these waters are avoided by careful

navigators. The snow-fall is excessive, and in the mountain region lies very deep on the ground; as much as twenty feet of snow sometimes accumulates in the valley of the Totorigawa. There is a great contrast between the clouded sky and snow-covered ground of the west coast and the clear sky and bare ground of the east coast.

From April to September, the winds on the Sea of Japan are from the southwest, and are of gentle character, except when the terrible typhoons, which correspond to our West Indian hurricanes, ravage the coast, and render dangerous the waters of the Sea of Japan. Thus, the passage of the Sea of Japan offers treacherous winds to the Japanese ships, both in winter and early fall, and one terrible storm might create greater havoc among the Japanese forces than a whole year of fighting.

The Russian coast from the mouth of the Amur southward has a most inhospitable climate. It has the coldest winter and the lowest average temperature for the year of any region lying in that latitude. The spring is very cold, and extends far into the early summer months, but, to make up for this, the fall is relatively warm. The frequent dense fogs that occur in the warm season add to the dangers and general unattractiveness of the region. In fact, a climate that strongly resembles that of Labrador extends as far south as latitude 40°. During the winter months, a strong northwest wind blows almost continuously, and carries the cold air from the interior to the coast. In the summer time, however, the winds are mainly from the south or southeast.

The climatic conditions along the Russian coast south of the Amur are shown by those at Nikolaewsk, at the north, and Vladivostok, at the south.

At Vladivostok, the last snow falls in the spring, about April 1, and the last ice is seen about the middle of the month. In the fall, ice forms about November 1, and the first snow-fall comes a week or ten days later. The highest summer temperature is about 92° F., and the lowest winter temperature about — 15° F.

At Nikolaewsk, on the Amur near its mouth, the last snow falls about the 1st of June, and the ice remains until about the end of the third week in May. In the fall, ice forms about October 20, although navigation may not close for another fortnight, about which time the first snow falls. The average maximum summer temperature is 83° F., and the average winter minimum — 38° F., but a minimum of — 58° F. has been recorded.

So that, with northward progress there is a re-

tardation of spring by six or seven weeks, and winter sets in two or three weeks earlier, thus shortening the summer season and lengthening the winter season by more than two months.

Korea presents a variety of climate, with its stretch of six hundred miles in latitude, its mountains extending to altitudes that exceed that of Mount Washington, and its peninsular exposure at the south and an east coast continental exposure in the northern portion. At Chemulpho, midway up on the east shore of the Yellow Sea, an average annual temperature of 50° F. obtains, with a maximum of 90° F. and a minimum of +30° F., and even here open waters freeze over in winter. But in the northern portion the conditions are much more extreme; winter temperatures below zero are experienced, open river waters are frozen over for four months in winter, which is truly arctic in character, with the cold northwest winds sweeping down from the interior of the continent.

The summer season is almost tropical in its warmth, and during the months June to September from twenty-five to thirty inches of rain falls; during the other months of the year, the precipitation is light and is quite evenly distributed. Great floods are liable to occur during the summer months that render the streams impassable; and the high relative humidity of the air at this season of the year renders even moderately high temperatures almost unbearable.

Manchuria, with its diversified land surface, its high mountains and its valleys, experiences great contrasts of climate. The summer temperatures reach 95° F., while in winter the temperatures go as low as — 15° F. at the south and — 40° F. at the north. The rainfall occurs mostly in the summer, and amounts to only about 20 or 25 inches during the entire year. Manchuria possesses a rich summer vegetation, and its fertile valleys will supply a welcome commissary aid to the combatants.

In following up the railroad from the Yellow Sea to the Amur, there is but little change in the summer temperatures, but the duration of the warm season decreases by about two months, and the winter is consequently lengthened by a like amount. The number of days when the waters are ice-covered increase from 100 or 120 to 170 or 180. There is also a corresponding change in the severity of the cold. Minimum temperatures of zero or not much below, at the south, decrease to fifty degrees below zero on the Amur; and while waters are freed from ice in March at the south, yet on the Amur they remain ice-bound until early in May. In the fall, the temperatures do not go below zero until the end of November, and waters do not become

frozen until December, but the time grows earlier with progress toward the Amur, where the temperature goes below freezing the first week in October, and by the beginning of November the waters are ice-bound.

The dryness of the Siberian climate is very conducive to the health of its inhabitants, and the permanent reserve camps of the Russian soldiers will thus be much more advantageously placed than those of the Japanese in the moister Korea and southern Manchuria.

Throughout most of the long stretch across Siberia to the Amur, minimum winter temperatures of from -40° F. to -60° F. may be expected. Winter sets in with freezing weather in the latter part of October, and waters become ice-bound early in November. Thawing weather does not come until April, and ice remains until early in May. The waters thus remain frozen for six months of the year. Violent snow-storms occur in winter that would put to shame an American blizzard, although it is not that much snow actually falls, but it is blown about, and being frozen hard, is of sand-like consistency.

In the summer time, the maximum shade temperatures reach 90° F. or 95° F., but at night the minimum goes down almost to freezing. The long days of summer will prove most advantageous to the Russians, and may tempt the

Japanese to the Amur in case of their early success. The coming winter, however, would find the Russians much better able to withstand its rigors than the Japanese could possibly be. Russia has proved that the midwinter journey of a month across frozen Siberia has no insurmountable terrors for her troops. Only at the Lake Baikal transfer occur conditions that cannot be wholly anticipated.

The following little table shows the monthly midseasonal average temperatures at a few points that are of interest in connection with the war :

	January. Degrees Fahrenheit.	April. Degrees Fahrenheit.	July. Degrees Fahrenheit.	October. Degrees Fahrenheit.	Year. Degrees Fahrenheit.
Irkutsk.....	- 5	35	65	33	31
Verchogansk.....	-28	7	55	5	1
Nertschinsk.....	-28	28	55	26	22
Blagoweschtschensk..	-14	36	70	34	31
Chabarowsk.....	-13	36	69	38	33
Nikolajewsk.....	-10	27	68	35	28
Vladivostok.....	+ 5	39	69	48	40
Peking.....	+23	57	79	54	53
Taku.....	+24	54	80	55	53
Newchwang.....	+15	48	77	51	48
Mukden.....	+ 4	51	80	44	44
Seoul.....	+24	54	81	60	55
Chemulpho.....	+27	58	80	60	54
Nernuro.....	+23	38	65	50	48
Hakodate.....	+27	45	70	52	47
Tokio.....	+36	54	77	60	57

CHICAGO'S SIGNIFICANT ELECTION AND REFERENDUM.

BY VICTOR S. YARROS.

IS Chicago, the second city in the United States, a "municipal-ownership town?"

The intelligence that an overwhelming majority of those citizens of "the most American of American cities" who voted at the municipal election, on April 5, declared themselves in favor of municipal ownership of the street-railway systems at the earliest opportunity seems to have surprised and nonplused a good many alleged public guides and teachers. All sorts of more or less remarkable explanations have been offered, not only by speculative outsiders who are not restrained in their flights of fancy by an inconvenient acquaintance with the facts, but also by local observers who are presumed to know the history and antecedents of the event.

As the result of the so-called "little ballot" (or referendum) is undoubtedly significant, es-

pecially when considered in the light of the aldermanic election which accompanied it, a thoroughly impartial and candid account of the campaign should convey useful instruction to intelligent students of American municipal politics.

What, then, did Chicago vote for, and why did she vote as she did? The questions which concern us in this article were submitted to the qualified electors of Chicago in the following forms:

1. Shall the Act of the General Assembly of the State of Illinois entitled "An Act to authorize cities to acquire, construct, own, operate, and lease street railways, and to provide the means therefor," approved May 18, 1903, in force July 1, 1903, commonly known as the "Mueller law," be adopted and in force in the city of Chicago?

2. Shall the City Council, upon the adoption of the Mueller law, *proceed without delay* [italics mine] to acquire ownership of the street railways under the powers conferred by the Mueller law?

3. Shall the City Council, instead of granting any franchises, proceed at once, under the city's police powers and other existing laws, to license the street-railway companies until municipal ownership can be secured, and compel them to give satisfactory service?

The first proposition was adopted by a majority of over 122,000, 152,434 voting "for," and 30,104 "against," it. The thirty thousand persons who voted to reject the Mueller enabling act were certainly severely logical and consistent, for there can be no municipal ownership in a city which lacks the legal authority to adopt that alternative. The fact that the Mueller Act was a home-rule measure, that it conferred a power which, by common consent of progressive men, all cities should possess, apparently did not disturb them. They voted against autonomy and the right of their city to manage its own affairs in order to prevent what they feared might prove the insertion of the thin end of the wedge of "municipal socialism." It should be borne in mind, however, that a good many of these 30,000 unterrified "antis" are directly or indirectly pecuniarily interested in the maintenance of the traction *status quo*—as stockholders, bondholders, agents, attorneys, superior employees, etc.

It is interesting to note at this point that, in spite of the practical unanimity with which political and civic bodies, and the press of the city (but two newspapers constituting the opposition), had urged acceptance at the polls on the Mueller enabling act, nearly fifty thousand of those who voted for aldermanic candidates failed to register their opinions on that vital proposition. There are those who claim that in this instance silence signified dissent or displeasure, but the reasoning which leads to this conclusion is rather occult. Why should indifferent citizens be counted against rather than for a proposition?

On the immediate municipal-ownership proposition, the vote stood thus: "Yes," 120,744; "No," 50,893; majority for the proposition, 69,851. Nearly eleven thousand people had positive opinions on the question of adopting or rejecting the Mueller Act, while entertaining doubt as to the right answer to the municipal-ownership interrogatory. The figures further show that many thousands appreciated the very material distinction between a proposition looking to the possession of a power and privilege and a

proposition involving the immediate exercise of such power and privilege. Plainly, a vote for the enabling act did not commit one to municipal ownership, and it is safe to say that thousands of uncompromising individualists and opponents of public ownership of public utilities voted for the Mueller proposition with satisfaction and cheerfulness.

On the interim license *vs.* the fixed-term franchise proposition, the vote was: "Yes," 120,183; "No," 48,056; majority for the plan, 72,127. There are some citizens in Chicago who are opposed to municipal ownership, without favoring franchises and fixed-term contracts for private ownership and operation of public utilities. The indeterminate and revocable license (a very different thing from the indeterminate, perpetual franchise) would, as an original proposition, command considerable support in Chicago, whose bitter experience with corporate "contracts" has afforded a liberal education.

Eliminating, as we are fully entitled to do, the voters who take no interest in measures and matters of policy, it is undeniable that the citizens of Chicago have voted for immediate municipal ownership. What is the exact meaning of this mandate? I say "mandate," for morally and politically it is a mandate, although this referendum was had under a public-policy act of the State which merely provides for the expression of opinion—for "academic" referendums, as our newspapers put it. It is a mandate because in an American community the majority is bound to have its way, and, secondly, because no ordinance settling the traction question will ever be approved by the people (and any such ordinance must be referred to the people by virtue of the pledges made by the mayor and many of our best aldermen) which shall be open to the charge of needlessly postponing the opportunity for municipal ownership. What, to repeat, is the meaning of this mandate?

We have been told, since the election, that it had no meaning; that the majority voted blindly, ignorantly, and spitefully. All sorts of theoretical and practical objections have been marshaled against municipal ownership and operation to prove—what? That the people ought not to have voted for it? No, that they did not intend, and could not have intended, to vote for it! Obviously, it is easy to be foolish, as well as wise, after the event.

Simple solutions, it has been said, are often thought of last instead of first. The simple solution of the Chicago referendum "mystery" is that the majority of the voters prefer municipal ownership to the kind of private ownership they have known and "enjoyed" for years. They

are not converts of Karl Marx (as one of our papers would have us believe) or of the Fabian Socialists. They have not consciously abandoned the "principles of the fathers." Ask the average Chicago advocate of municipal ownership whether he has adopted "municipal socialism," and he will stare at you, as the question will be unintelligible to him. Socialism! What has it to do with the situation? He wants decent service, which he has not had and sees no prospect of getting under the present system and management. He wants consideration for his just claims, which he has been denied. He wants, for the community as a whole, justice and fair play, which the traction companies have not even dreamed of conceding.

Let me quote Mayor Carter H. Harrison's message to the Council of 1903 on the sort of service the Chicago traction companies have been furnishing:

For years, they [the people] have been subjected to the most outrageous service known to an American city; they have suffered from accommodations which have violated every conceivable rule of health, comfort, and decency. Morning and night, they have been huddled like cattle in ill-ventilated, unclean, and uncomfortable cars; their wives and daughters have been subjected to conditions so demoralizing as to be absolutely indecent.

Are these the words of a politician who panders to prejudice? No one in the city (not even the traction officials themselves) has a better opinion of the service. The most conservative newspapers use such terms as "execrable," "impossible," "wretched," and "odious" in describing the intramural transportation system of the city. The chairman of the Transportation Committee of the present Council is quoted as saying that a man cannot "ride on the street cars of Chicago with the assurance that he will reach the end of his journey without having had his spinal column jerked out of the position the Creator intended it to assume." The delays, interruptions, and break-downs in bad weather are so frequent and so serious that it has freely been charged in the press that the companies deliberately arrange them in order to exhaust the public patience and drive the average citizen to favor a settlement of the outstanding franchise question at any cost to the city, so long as any improvement of the service were held out as the consideration therefor.

But the people of Chicago have not urged a settlement at any cost to the city. They have, instead, judged, found wanting, and condemned the present traction system and demanded a change to the only alternative that seems feasible. Why have not the municipal authorities com-

pelled the companies to rehabilitate their system and improve their service? Or, if that be impossible, why are not the companies ousted and the franchises granted to more competent and more reasonable men?

Because "contracts" and franchises alleged to have been obtained from the State Legislature several decades ago are in the way. The city has stoutly,—in late years, at any rate,—denied not only the value but the legal validity of the alleged State franchises, secured over her head and in contempt of her rights and wishes; but one of the companies has taken the controversy into the federal court, and the city has been restrained by injunction from interfering with the company's business or infringing upon its alleged rights. As this litigation is profoundly offensive to the public, involves the assertion of absurd and dishonest claims, and has undoubtedly made thousands of believers in municipal ownership, a few words may be said concerning it.

The first street-railway franchise under which a railway was constructed in Chicago was granted by the City Council in 1858. It was for a period of twenty-five years, and contained a clause for purchase of the property by the city at the end of that term. In 1865, the State Legislature passed an act extending, or purporting to extend, from twenty-five to ninety-nine years all the franchises, licenses, contracts, etc., of the street-railway companies then in existence in Chicago. This was a "boodle" measure, and the press and the public opinion of the city denounced it in language as violent as it was just. It was asserted that the act had been "conceived in sin and brought forth in iniquity," and the then governor of Illinois, Richard J. Oglesby, vetoed it in obedience to his sense of duty and decency and to the indignant protests of the community. It was, however, passed over his veto and incorporated into the law of the State.

In 1883, the companies sought an extension of their franchises from the City Council, and a compromise was agreed upon. The alleged rights under the ninety-nine-year act were not surrendered or waived, but the city carefully refrained from recognizing them even by implication. The authorities frankly admitted that they were anxious to stave off the determination of the validity, scope, and practical importance of the ninety-nine-year act, and the ordinance then passed extended the franchises for twenty years and left the whole matter of the State title in abeyance.

Since 1897, in which year the companies revived the old issue by securing anti-home rule legislation, favorable to their interests, from a corrupt and boss-ridden legislature, the authori-

ties and upright citizens of Chicago have insisted on an absolute waiver of all claims under the ninety-nine-year act as a condition precedent to any further franchise-extension legislation. In a report of a special street-railway commission created by the City Council in 1900, the following paragraph may be found: "When the companies now in control of Chicago receive any further grant of privileges from the city, they should be required, as a condition of such grant, to renounce any claims of rights under the so-called ninety-nine-year act of 1865." And this has been the position of the mayor and the Council since that time. "No waiver, no grants," has been the watchword.

The country has heard of the Chicago Municipal Voters' League, the non-partisan body of public-spirited citizens that was organized over eight years ago for the purpose of purifying, elevating, and reforming the City Council, in which boodle-and-spoils rule had reigned unchecked and honest performance of duty had been the rare exception. This is not the place to dwell on the splendid work and extraordinary achievements of the league. All that is relevant in this connection is mention of the fact that its platform, which every reputable member of the last several councils has signed, contains these planks:

I believe that no future franchises for street railways, gas or electric plants, or other public utilities should be granted without expressly reserving the opportunity for municipal ownership at or before the expiration of the grant; that such grants should require the best possible service for the public, and the use of the most approved appliances, reserving to the Council the power to make reasonable regulations at all times for this purpose.

I believe that the application of the referendum to such matters of grave public importance as the issuance of municipal bonds has for years operated with distinct advantage, and that the opportunity should be afforded for its application to the settlement of all important policies with reference to public utilities.

I believe that, in addition to the foregoing provisions, all grants or extensions of street-railway franchises to the existing companies should require that such companies expressly waive all claims under the so-called ninety-nine-year act.

One of the companies has tentatively agreed to waive the ninety-nine-year act, but the other and larger one has flatly refused to accept this condition, and has appealed to the federal court for "protection." Years of controversy and litigation are in prospect, and the people, weary of obstruction, persistent attempts to profit by past wrong, and of failure to meet reasonable demands, are determined to cut the Gordian knot by reforming the present traction *régime* alto-

gether and substituting municipal ownership. The lesson of the referendum is so plain that only reckless and stupid (mis)managers of natural monopolies contrive to miss it. The wages of abuse and neglect and riotous contempt of the public are forfeiture and extinction. Ideals of private ownership under proper control will not save the sort of private ownership which waters stock, bribes legislatures and juries, advances unconscionable claims, and charges high rates for execrable service. The press may appeal, and rightly, to such ideals; may point out the golden mean between the abuse of private monopoly and public monopoly with its political and economic evils; the average man, whose mind, in Walter Bagehot's phrase, is "fact-ish," is not guided by general principles. As a matter of fact, but one Chicago newspaper has advocated immediate municipal ownership, while all the others have steadily opposed it, while indorsing the Mueller "enabling" act, and in this they were at one with the civic bodies and the authorities. The voters read the arguments—and remained unconvinced. An ounce of such fact as tampering with juries, debauching legislators, and resisting equity and decency overbalances pounds of theory.

The people of Chicago elected, on April 5, an honest and intelligent council. They paid no attention to party labels and party appeals. They voted for fit, moderate, judicious men who had been indorsed by the league, and even radical champions of municipal ownership were defeated because of their lack of experience and ability. At the same time, these voters, praised for their discrimination as regards aldermanic candidates, demanded municipal ownership,—a radical departure! And this in every ward of the city, without exception! "Blind and ignorant" men do not act in any such manner.

Financial and legal difficulties render municipal ownership impracticable in Chicago at this conjuncture. The franchises of the companies will probably be extended, but they will have to pay adequate compensation, waive their alleged State-given rights, provide first-class service, and accept a clause reserving to the city the privilege of purchasing the properties at the end of a short period,—ten or fifteen years. Ordinances less favorable to the city will not have the ghost of a chance at the polls. If the companies intend to resist the "I will" of the Chicago electorate even now, municipal ownership—and operation to boot—will come within five years.

This is the meaning of the Chicago referendum.

CONVENTIONS AND OTHER GATHERINGS OF THE YEAR.

THE Presidential campaign would in itself mark 1904 as preëminently a convention year for the United States, even if there were no exposition at St. Louis, with its attendant series of conferences and congresses. St. Louis itself having been chosen as the meeting-place of the Democratic National Convention, the attention of the whole country will be focused there for several days, beginning with July 6. Meanwhile, the Republican National Convention will have met and concluded its labors at Chicago in the last ten days of June. The first gathering of the minor political parties will be that of the National Social Democratic organization, at Chicago, on May 1. Indianapolis has been chosen as the meeting-place of the National Prohibition Congress, and July 29 as the date, while the People's party will meet in national convention at Springfield, Ill., on July 4.

CONVENTIONS AT ST. LOUIS.

At St. Louis, next to the Democratic convention, in July, perhaps the most truly national organization to meet during the coming summer will be the National Educational Association, of which some mention is made at another point in this article. This, however, will be only one of the three hundred gatherings to which Mr. Saunders alludes in his article on the fair in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. Besides the Congress of Arts and Science, specially promoted by the exposition, and unique in its character, there will be a series of congresses similar to those held at Chicago in 1893, and at Paris in 1900, most of which will have the support of the American society or association devoted to similar objects. In May, there will be an International Press Congress, and also an International Good Roads Congress. On September 12-17 will take place the third International Congress of Electricity. The International Congress of Lawyers and Jurists will meet on September 29. This will be followed, in October, by international congresses on engineering, on temperance, on Sunday rest, and on instruction of the deaf, and an international library congress, under the auspices of the American Library Association. Several other congresses of this character, for which dates have not yet been assigned, will undoubtedly meet during the exposition season.

A great number of miscellaneous conventions have been invited by the exposition to meet in its halls and meeting-places, and dates have been assigned to many of these. Elsewhere in this article we shall speak of the Federation of Women's Clubs' meeting, in May, and during the month of June there will be gatherings of the National Federation of Musical Clubs, of the Federation of Day Nurseries, of the National Coöperative Congress, of the National Eclectic Medical Association, of the Sons of the American Revolution, of the Railway Clerks of America, and of the Music Teachers' National Association. In September, the American Neurological Association, and in October, the American Congress on Tuberculosis, will hold sessions on the exposition grounds.

It is a matter of some interest to the public to know how these various organizations are to be provided for by the exposition authorities. It has been announced that the Library Building of the Washington University, designated as the Hall of Congresses for the exposition term, will be the meeting-place of the congress sessions. There are many similar rooms for section and committee meetings, while an excellent auditorium for large audiences will be Festival Hall, situated in the center of the grounds. The exposition, also, has charge of the Coliseum Building, on Olive Street, and this building is available for such conventions or congresses as may wish to meet within the city limits.

MEETINGS OF PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL SOCIETIES.

Among the professional and scientific associations holding sessions this year at other points than St. Louis, the American Medical Association, which now consists of fourteen thousand members and is rapidly increasing its membership, will meet on June 7, at Atlantic City, N. J. This meeting will be preceded by that of the American Academy of Medicine, at the same place. The American Institute of Homeopathy will meet at Niagara Falls, on June 20.

The American Society of Mechanical Engineers will hold a joint session with the Institution of Mechanical Engineers of Great Britain, on May 31. On September 8, there will be a meeting, in New York City, of the Society of Mechanical Industry, under the presidency of

Sir William Ramsey. This meeting will be held at the invitation of the New York section of this society. It is expected that about one hundred and fifty of the most prominent men connected with the industries of Great Britain will attend this meeting, which is the first in the history of the society to be held in the United States. An American president will be elected for the ensuing year. It is said that a more representative association of technologists, manufacturers, and scientists has never visited this country.

The American Mining Congress will hold its seventh annual session at Portland, Ore., beginning on August 22 and continuing for six days.

The National Irrigation Congress will hold its twelfth annual session at El Paso, Texas, on November 15. The work of this congress will be divided into sections of forestry, land and water laws, engineering and mechanics, production by irrigation, and climatology. Every State and Territory in the Union is represented on the roster of this congress.

PATRIOTIC RALLIES AND REUNIONS.

The thirtieth National Congress of the Grand Army of the Republic will be held at Boston, beginning on August 15. The commander-in-chief this year is Mr. John C. Black, of Illinois. The Woman's Relief Corps, and the Sons of Veterans, will hold annual meetings at the same time and place.

In the South, the United Daughters of the Confederacy, which now has a membership of thirty-five thousand, will hold this year's session at St. Louis, October 4-8. The objects of this association are historical, educational, benevolent, and social. The society is planning for the erection of a Battle Abbey in the city of Richmond, where records and relics of the Confederacy will be preserved.

EDUCATIONAL GATHERINGS.

One of the great conventions to be held, during the summer, in connection with the St. Louis Exposition will be that of the National Educational Association, which will hold a four days' session, beginning on June 28. Into those four days, all the meetings of the eighteen departments of the association will be compressed; but the officers have arranged for a series of studies of the various educational exhibits to occupy a week or more following the close of the convention. The plan agreed upon for the convention proper provides that the sessions be limited in number and length, in order that papers and discussions may be practically applied in the study of the exhibits. Each department will hold two sessions, such topics for the programme

being selected as relate most directly to the exposition. The general sessions, four in number, will be devoted to the discussion of national educational systems. Eminent foreign educators will be present, and will assist in a comparative and intelligent study of their illustrative exhibits.

The only other national educational convention to be held during the summer will be that of the American Institute of Instruction, at Bethlehem, N. H., July 5-8. This gathering, also, will profit from the presence in this country of eminent educators. Among others, M. Gabriel Compayre, of France, has been invited to address the convention, which will consider current educational problems. The important feature of the meeting of the Institute of Instruction will be the Department of Kindergartens, under the presidency of Miss Lucy Wheelock, of Boston, in which will be represented all the kindergarten teachers and trainers of New England.

The annual University Convocation of the State of New York will take place June 27-28. For many years, this conference at Albany has brought together many experts in higher and secondary education, and its proceedings have been of unique value to educationists throughout the country.

Another gathering which may properly be classed in the educational group will be the conference of the American Library Association, which will this year assume an international character, and will be held at St. Louis, October 17-22. All associations of foreign librarians have been invited to send delegates to this meeting, and enough replies have been received to indicate that this feature of the conference will be a success. The programme will be cast on broad lines, and will be planned to present an accurate and extended account of the present status of library work in this and other countries. Many of the Western States will hold the annual meetings of their State library associations at St. Louis during the week of the international conference. The president of the American Library Association this year is Mr. Herbert Putnam, head of the Library of Congress, at Washington.

It has been the custom of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*, in past years, to outline the work and the prospects of some of the more important summer schools of the country. Within a few years there has been a marked differentiation in the character and aims of these schools. The summer-school movement is everywhere recognized as a growing one, and there is every reason to believe that more and better work is done

by the summer schools at the present time than was possible twenty, or even ten, years ago. The increase, however, has been in quality rather than in quantity. There are possibly fewer of the popular "assemblies" and so-called "Chautauquas" at the present time than there were ten years ago. But of well-equipped schools maintained for the sake of those who wish to occupy the summer months in serious study there are undoubtedly more in existence to-day than ever before in the history of the country. There is hardly a State in the Union where such opportunities are not afforded by one or more institutions.

THE SUMMER-SCHOOL IDEA, NORTH AND SOUTH.

While we are accustomed to think of the summer-school movement as pretty well advanced in years, it is a significant fact that the most vigorous outgrowth of the movement to be found anywhere in the country is now only in its third year. We refer to the Summer School of the South, which is held through the month of July at the University of Tennessee, at Knoxville. Former numbers of this REVIEW have told something of the spirit and purpose of this admirable school, which is supported by gifts from the General Education Board, from citizens of Knoxville and Knox County, and from friends of the South in all parts of the country. The school aims to offer to the teachers of the Southern States the best possible opportunities for improvement in general scholarship and professional knowledge, and that the teachers appreciate these opportunities is shown by the fact that at each of the two sessions already held there was an enrollment of more than two thousand, and an even larger attendance is looked for this year. Instruction is given in all of the more important branches of high-school and college work. This year, a number of advanced graduate courses will be offered. The faculty for the coming session includes President G. Stanley Hall, Dr. Arnold Tompkins, President E. A. Alderman, President Charles D. McIver, Prof. Richard T. Ely, Prof. J. Mark Baldwin, Dr. C. Alphonso Smith, and many others well known in the educational world. Courses are provided which are adapted to the needs of teachers of all grades of schools, from the kindergarten to the college, and there is special work for teachers of rural schools. Knoxville's central location and salubrious summer climate combine to make it one of the most attractive places in the whole South for a gathering of this kind. The Universities of Georgia, North Carolina, Mississippi, and Virginia also conduct summer schools for teachers.

THE PARENT "CHAUTAUQUA."

The Chautauqua Institution, parent of hundreds of summer schools and assemblies scattered from Maine to California, will open its thirty-first annual assembly on June 30. The programme of the popular lectures for the season will be divided into weeks, as in the last three years. Civic Week, July 10-16, will be conducted in coöperation with the American League for Civic Improvement. The main topic of the week next following will be "The School, State or Parochial." Mission Week, July 24-30, will be occupied by the discussion of problems from the point of view of practical workers. The week of July 31-August 6 will be devoted to the problem of "Graft in American Life." In the following week, August 7-13, "The Bible in Modern Life" will be the subject under consideration, and the last of the special-week programmes (August 14-20) will be wholly given up to music. There will be lectures by the Hon. William H. Taft, Secretary of War; President E. A. Alderman, of Tulane University; Col. George W. Bain, of Louisville; the Rev. W. Byron Forbush, Dr. J. M. Thoburn, and others. More than sixty musical programmes will be presented, varying from the band concerts on the lake to presentations of Handel's "Messiah," July 22, and Haydn's "Creation," August 12. In the summer school proper, instruction will be given by ninety members of school and college faculties, gathered from all over the country. A new outing club has been projected, and will be formally organized this summer. Two new boat landings and several new tennis courts have been constructed, and the electric railway skirting the entire southern shore of the lake will make it easy for Chautauquans, not only to connect with the railroad terminals, but also to reach the new golf links, not far from the road gate.

A SCHOOL IN PHILANTHROPIC WORK.

Among the few summer schools of special character whose announcements have reached us, perhaps the most interesting on the whole is the Summer School in Philanthropic Work, conducted by the Charity Organization Society of New York City, which will open on June 27 and continue six weeks. The purpose of this school is to give to the new workers in philanthropy, and to those who desire to enlarge their field of observation, an introduction to the life among the poor in New York and the efforts that are made to improve conditions. It endeavors to bring together as many as possible of the experienced, practical workers from various parts of

the country to spend each a few days with the members of the school. About half of the students come from colleges and universities, and the remainder from the charitable societies and institutions of the different cities, including settlement workers and members of municipal departments. The course of instruction includes the care and treatment of needy families in their homes; the care of destitute, neglected, and delinquent children; medical charities; institutional care of adults, and neighborhood improvements. Each student makes a special study of some condition or phase of life among the poor, and prepares a report upon it. Each is assigned to practical work with the agents of the Charity Organization Society, or with some other experienced workers. Two groups of persons are eligible to membership,—those who have completed a college or university course, and those who have had one year of work in the philanthropic field. The director of the school is Dr. Philip W. Ayres, who may be addressed at 105 East Twenty-second Street, New York.

SUMMER WORK AT THE UNIVERSITIES.

We have more than once called attention to the fact that the summer sessions of the great universities are attaining an increasing importance from year to year. It is said that at Columbia, Cornell, Harvard, the University of California, and the University of Tennessee nearly six thousand students were registered in the summer of 1903. At Columbia University alone, there were nine hundred and forty students, and during the coming session, which will be the fifth held at Columbia, it is believed that the enrollment will be even larger. At any rate, additional courses have been arranged, and a large increase in the teaching staff has been made. Last year, there were forty-four professors and other instructors, while in the coming summer there will be sixty-three. New courses will be offered in anthropology, chemistry, education, geology, German, manual training, physiology, physics, and physical education. In the department of languages, four new courses will be given, and in the department of Romance languages, six, including work in Italian and Spanish. The departments of domestic sciences, geography, and mechanical drawing will be represented by nine courses. Of the students in attendance last year, more than 25 per cent. were graduates of colleges, more than 35 per cent. of professional schools for teachers, and 90 per cent. had had at least a four years' high-school course, or its equivalent. The session is open to both men and women, and will be well attended.

The Harvard Summer School of Arts and

Sciences will open on July 5 and close on August 12. A variety of courses will be given in ancient and modern languages, history, economics, philosophy, psychology, education, drawing and painting, architectural drawing, music, mathematics, surveying, shop work, physics, chemistry, botany, geology, geography, commercial geography, and physical education. These courses are designed for teachers or for persons preparing to teach. As at Columbia, all of the courses, with the exception of shop work and surveying, are open on equal terms to men and women. The libraries, laboratories, and museums of Harvard University are freely open to members of the summer school. Historical excursions will be conducted to places of interest in and about Cambridge, Boston, Lexington, Concord, Plymouth, and Salem. The Harvard Summer School of 1900 registered eleven hundred and eighty-six members.

GREAT MEETINGS PROJECTED BY WOMEN.

Several important meetings of women will be held during the next two months, beginning with the annual conference of the National Conference of Mothers, at Fullerton Hall Art Institute, Chicago, on May 11. This conference will continue for three days, and will discuss various topics relating to home and children, such as "The National Boy Problem," "Moral Education," "Uniform Marriage and Divorce Laws," "Education for the Art of Life," "Industrial Education for Civic Betterment," "Child Labor Conditions," "Probation Method," "Dependent and Delinquent Children," "Mothers' Mistakes," and "Domestic Sciences." The purpose of this conference, as announced by the officers, is to provide the best opportunities for the physical, mental, and moral development of every child.

In the week following the adjournment of the Conference of Mothers, at Chicago, there will be held, at St. Louis, the seventh biennial convention of the General Federation of Women's Clubs, beginning on May 17 and closing on the 25th. The programme of this convention embraces a wide range of topics of sociological interest. There will be addresses on questions connected with public education, industrial organization, municipal improvement, and domestic science. Every part of the United States will be represented in this great congress of women, which will receive reports from State organizations throughout the country.

The third quinquennial session of the National Council of Women will be held in Berlin, Germany, June 4-10. Nineteen different countries now have representation in this remarkable in-

ternational union of women, which may fairly claim a numerical strength of more than seven millions. Beginning with the organization of a national council in the United States in 1888, the organization has spread over most of the countries of Europe, and now includes several Australian councils, and one in Argentina. The latest addition is the Council of Hungary, formed by the union of fifty-two organizations from the centers of thirty-one Hungarian towns. The session of the council will be followed by an international congress of women, at Berlin, convened under its auspices. This congress will be divided into four sections,—namely, education and higher culture, the industries and professions of women, and the position of women in arts and letters. In these different sections, one hundred and eight women have been invited to participate, and all of the countries now included in the International Council, together with others in which steps toward the organization of councils are now being taken, will be represented in the congress.

Some months later, there will be held, at Philadelphia, an annual meeting that is always of much interest to thousands of American women,—namely, the convention of the National Women's Temperance Union. The date of this gathering has been fixed for November 29–December 3, in order that the delegates may go on to Washington to witness the placing of the statue of Frances E. Willard in the Statuary Hall of the national capitol.

CONFERENCES FOR SOCIAL BETTERMENT.

Of the various conferences to be held during the coming months for the promotion of ethical reform and the advancement of social welfare, none is likely to exert a greater influence than the great International Peace Congress, to be held at Boston, October 3–7. With the exception of the conference held in connection with the World's Fair at Chicago, in 1893, this is the first meeting of the congress to be held in America. It is said that no congress heretofore held has been planned so broadly or so generously as this will be. The distinguished French statesman, Baron d'Estournelles de Constant, who is one of the members of the French court, and the leader of the arbitration movement in France, will be present at the congress, and it is expected that he will bring with him a strong French delegation. A great meeting has been planned, in connection with the congress, devoted entirely to the work and influence of the Hague tribunal, with addresses by members of the tribunal from different nations.

The American Social Science Association is

to hold its general meeting for the year at Boston, beginning with May 11. This association is divided into departments of education and art, health, social economy, and jurisprudence. The president this year is Dr. John Graham Brooks, who is also the chairman of the Department of Social Economy.

The National Conference of Charities and Corrections will meet this year at Portland, Maine, on June 15. The conference will take up the subject of manual training as a preventive of juvenile dependency and delinquency, considering the results with white, colored, and Indian children, respectively. The programme also includes many topics related directly to the work of this national organization, which has been dealing for many years with all phases of charitable and corrective effort. The Jewish Conference of Charities and Correction will meet in New York City, on May 24.

Americans interested in charity organization and kindred movements will be glad to know of the fourth International Home Relief Congress, to be held at Edinburgh, June 7–10. These congresses are held for the discussion of the ways in which aid can best be given to the distressed poor in their homes, or under conditions of a homelike character. The idea of holding these congresses arose at a congress held in Paris in 1900, which dealt with charitable work of all kinds. It is hoped by the management that the home-relief charitable organizations of the United States will be represented at the Edinburgh congress. Remittances of the membership fee of four dollars may be made through Dr. Edward T. Devine, 105 East Twenty-second Street, New York City.

It is announced that the next meeting of the American Public Health Association is to be held at Havana, Cuba, either in the last week of December, 1904, or the first week of January, 1905. Dr. Carlos J. Finlay, the chief sanitary officer of Cuba, is the president of this organization.

The American League for Civic Improvement will hold a joint session with the American Park and Outdoor Art Association at St. Louis, June 9–11. The sessions will be held in the Minneapolis and St. Paul Building, in the Model City, on the fair grounds. The annual convention of the League of American Municipalities will be held in East St. Louis, October 4–6. On the last of these days, which has been named by the exposition authorities as "Municipal Day," a joint meeting of the various civic organizations has been planned, to be held in the Hall of Congresses, on the exposition grounds.

RELIGIOUS ASSEMBLIES.

Among the great church gatherings of the year will be the quadrennial session of the General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, which will be held at Los Angeles, Cal., beginning on May 4, and probably continuing through the greater part of the month. The conference will be composed of seven hundred and sixty delegates, equally divided between the ministry and the laity, coming from nearly every country on the globe. About twenty-five of the delegates will be women. The bishops of the Church, in turn, will preside over the deliberations of the conference, but will have no vote. The morning sessions of the conference will be held in Hazard's Pavilion, an auditorium that will seat about thirty-five hundred people, and the various committees of the conference will hold sessions in the churches in the city. There will also be a daily Pentecostal service at the Temple Baptist Church. A great missionary exhibit in the large hall at Fourth Street and Broadway will be an interesting and instructive feature to visitors. Among the subjects that will be considered by the conference are the restoration of the time limit for the ministry, the question of amusements, and the administration of the various church boards. Plans will also be matured for a world-wide missionary movement, and for a campaign of evangelization at home. In addition, there will be an election of from four to eight new bishops, editors of the church papers, and secretaries of the various societies.

Another denominational meeting of more than ordinary interest will be the nineteenth quadrennial session of the Methodist Protestant Church, to be held at Washington, D. C., on May 20. This body will take action upon the proposed union of the Congregational, United Brethren, and Methodist Protestant churches, and as it is the first of the three denominations to meet in general conference since the adoption of a report by a committee representing the three bodies, its decision may have much to do with shaping subsequent thought and action on the part of the other bodies.

As to the Congregational denomination, one of those with which affiliation is proposed, the body known as the National Council of Congregational Churches in the United States will hold its triennial session at Des Moines, Iowa, on October 13, in joint session with the Congregational Home Missionary Society, the American Missionary Association, and several other denominational boards and societies. This council, also, will take some action, it is expected, on the

report of the committee on denominational union. These Congregational meetings at Des Moines will be preceded by the annual meeting of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions, at Grinnell, the seat of Iowa College, on October 11.

The various "general assemblies" of the Presbyterian Church organizations in this country will meet as follows: That of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America (North), at Buffalo, on May 19; Presbyterian Church in the United States (South), at Mobile, Ala., May 19; United Presbyterian Church, at Greenville, Pa., May 26; Cumberland Presbyterian Church, at Dallas, Texas, May 19. The General Synod of the Reformed Church of America will meet at Grand Rapids, Mich., on June 1.

The National Baptist Anniversaries of 1904 will be held, May 16-24, in the Euclid Avenue Baptist Church, Cleveland. The missionary societies of the Church, whose constituencies are made up of all the churches north of Mason and Dixon's line, will participate in these anniversary meetings. Meanwhile, the Southern Baptist churches will be represented in a great convention at Nashville, Tenn., beginning on May 13.

The general convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church will be held in Boston, on October 5. The subjects likely to come before the convention are: "Marriage and Divorce," "Courts of Appeal," "Division of the Church Into Provinces," and "Revision of Canons."

YOUNG PEOPLE'S CONFERENCES.

No great religious mass-meetings, like those which have been held in former years under the auspices of the Christian Endeavor Society, are planned for the coming season, so far as we are informed. The Christian Endeavor organization now holds its conventions biennially, this being the off year. There are, however, to be largely attended meetings of the young people's societies connected with several of the great denominations. The Young People's Christian Union of the United Brethren in Christ will hold its biennial convention at Winona Lake, Ind., June 22-26. A similar organization connected with the United Presbyterian and Associate Reformed Presbyterian churches will meet in convention at St. Joseph, Mo., on June 29. The Baptist Young People's Union of America will meet in its fourteenth annual convention at Detroit, on July 7. Other similar gatherings will be those of the Luther League of America, at Buffalo, August 16-18; the Brotherhood of St. Andrew, Philadelphia, on September 29; and the Brothers of Andrew and Philip, at Pocono Summit, Pa., July 1-6. The fourth convention

of the American Federation of Catholic Societies will be held at Detroit, August 2-5.

The most important delegate conference of an undenominational character to be held during the coming months will undoubtedly be the International Conference of the Young Men's Christian Association, at Buffalo, May 11-15. Nearly two thousand delegates will attend this convention, which will mark the completion of a half-century since the first meeting at Buffalo, consisting only of thirty-seven association men, shaped the policy of the association for its early years. Matters of association policy, involving the relation of the international, State, and local associations, will be discussed at this convention, and, in addition, there will be addresses by eminent men in various walks of life.

The Summer Conference established at Northfield, Mass., by the late D. L. Moody has each year made steady advances, both in numbers and in influence. The Young Men's Student Conference, to be held this year during the first ten days of July, will be made up of delegations from the preparatory schools and colleges of the East, its object being to develop the religious life of students and train them for active Christian work in their institutions. This conference will be followed by the Northfield Young Women's Conference, similar in purpose to the Student Conference, and the Summer School for Women's Missionary Societies, which is an interdenominational convention of the women's boards of foreign missions in the United States. The Summer School of Sunday-school Workers will be held July 16-25. Simultaneously with these various conferences will be held a Summer Bible School, in which those who attend the conferences may participate. This is followed, at the end of July, with the General Conference of Christian Workers, the largest and most popular of the Northfield assemblies. This conference is purely evangelical in its teaching, and corresponds closely to the Keswick Conventions in England. It is attended by people from many nations, professing many creeds. No sectarian lines are drawn, and in the Christian democracy of the place social distinctions are unknown. The series of post-conference addresses, from August 15 to September 12, will consist of a series of lectures by Prebendary Webb-Peploe, of London, and some of the more prominent Northfield speakers.

What is known as the American Committee, federated with the Women's Christian Association and the World's Student Christian Federation, holds its usual conferences at six different points. These conferences were attended, in 1903, by two thousand and twenty-six young

women from the colleges and cities of the United States. The dates for the coming season are as follows :

Pacific Coast Conference, Capitola, Cal., May 14-25 ; Southern Conference, Asheville, N. C., June 10-20 ; Eastern Student Conference, Silver Bay, Lake George, N. Y., June 24-July 5 ; Eastern City Conference, Silver Bay, Lake George, N. Y., July 8-19 ; Western City Conference, Lake Geneva, Wis., August 20-29 ; and Western Student Conference, Lake Geneva, Wis., September 1-11.

MUSICAL EVENTS AT HOME AND ABROAD.

At the Louisiana Purchase Exposition there will be much of interest to the music-lover. The Bureau of Music, which is under the direction of George D. Markham, has arranged for a series of classical concerts, band concerts, and choral contests, with unlimited open-air music. Mr. Markham supplies the following data as to the hopes and accomplishments of the bureau. The classical concerts will be given in Festival Hall, supported by the largest organ in the world. Alexandre Guilmant is coming from Paris, and such American organists as Eddy, Lemare, Carl, Parker, Warren, and others will give organ concerts daily. The Exposition Orchestra will be composed of fifty members of the St. Louis Choral Symphony and thirty additional members from other cities. The orchestra will give one concert each week. The chorus work will be done by a local chorus made up of the St. Louis Choral Symphony Chorus, the Morning Choral Club, and the Apollo Club. Arrangements have already been made by the Apollo Club of Chicago, the Ann Arbor Festival Association, and the Kansas City Oratorical Society to sing at the exposition. There will be choral contests for mixed choruses during the week beginning July 11. The larger choruses will render four numbers,—one from the "Messiah," two from the "Golden Legend," and two others, to be selected. The smaller choruses, of from forty to seventy members, will also render four numbers, to be announced later. The conductor of the Exposition Orchestra will be Mr. Ernst, of St. Louis.

There will be popular music given by the official exposition orchestra and brass bands, and the orchestral popular concerts will be given in the reproduction of the Tyrolean Alps, under the leadership of Josef Holmesberger, court conductor, of Vienna, and Karl Komzak, also of Vienna. A number of famous bands from all over the world will be present. It is certain that the Grenadier Guards Band, of England, the Garde Républicaine band, of France, and von

Blon's Berlin Band will be present. There will also be bands from Mexico, the Philippines, and other countries. Among the United States bands which will play are Sousa's, Innes', Weber's, Conterno's, and the Banda Rossa. The Bureau of Music hopes to "contribute toward raising the tone of musical taste and intelligence throughout the country. The rule that every organization appearing at the St. Louis Exposition must use international pitch will decide the long-standing contest between the old-style high American pitch and the modern low international pitch."

The twenty-first saengerfest of the Saengerbund of the Northwest will be held in Milwaukee, July 28-31. The Saengerbund numbers ninety societies, in eight different States. Five grand concerts will be given, with the Wisconsin chorus of three thousand voices. The sessions will be held in the Exposition Building, and the mayor of the city is acting as manager of the enterprise. Among the noteworthy names appearing on the programme are those of Theodore Thomas, Mme. Schumann-Heink, and Ellis van Hoose. There will be children's concerts, and a male chorus of nine hundred voices under the direction of Mr. Thomas. The secretary, Oscar R. Schumacher (1109 Walnut Street, Milwaukee), will supply further information.

During 1904, the main German Operatic Festival will take place at Baireuth and Munich. There are to be two "Ring" cycles at Baireuth, beginning July 25 and August 14. "Tannhäuser" will be given on July 22 and August 1, 4, 12, and 19; "Parsifal," on July 23 and 31, and August 5, 11, and 20. The festival at Munich promises three "Ring" cycles, beginning August 18 and 31, and September 8. On August 14, 26 and 29, and September 6, "The Flying Dutchman" will be given; August 15 and 27, "The Meistersinger;" August 12 and 24, "Tristan and Isolde." Two series of Mozart operas will also be given at Munich,—the first, August 1-5; the second, August 7-11. The operas will be "The Marriage of Figaro," "Abduction from the Seraglio," "Don Juan," "Cosi fan Tutte," and "The Magic Flute."

Cincinnati will hold her sixteenth biennial May Music Festival, this year, May 11-14. As usual, the festival will be under the direction of Theodore Thomas, who will bring his orchestra from Chicago. He will be assisted by fifty or more additions from the Cincinnati orchestra, and the chorus will be the regular festival chorus of five hundred. There will be three evening concerts,

May 11, 13, and 14, and two afternoon concerts, May 12 and 14. The soloists will be Miss Agnes Nicholls, of London, soprano; Mme. Schumann-Heink, of Dresden, and Miss Muriel Foster, of London, contraltos; William Green, of London, tenor, and Watkin Mills, of London, bass. The principal works performed will be Bach's "B Minor Mass," Beethoven's "Missa Solemnis" and "Ninth Symphony," Berlioz' "Kaiser Imperial March," and Elgar's "Dream of Gerontius." The incidental music and the funeral march from "Grania and Diarmid" will be played, and Richard Strauss' "Tod und Verklärung" will be played at the concerts.

Welsh-Americans will have their Eisteddfods at Scranton, Pa., and Utica, N. Y., this year, as usual. It has been announced that the National Eisteddfod will be held in Pittsburg this year. The date, however, has been changed to May 30-31, 1905. The Pittsburg Eisteddfod Association intends to send a delegation to the National Eisteddfod to be held in Wales during August of this year, and confidently expects that the parent organization in the old country will participate in the American Eisteddfod in 1905.

One of the oldest musical associations of the country is that of Worcester, Mass. Its forty-seventh annual festival will be held in the last week of September. The principal choral works to be presented are Elgar's "Dream of Gerontius" and Saint-Saen's "Samson and Delilah." Mr. Wallace Goodrich will be conductor of the choral works.

The twenty-sixth annual meeting of the Music Teachers' National Association will be held at St. Louis, June 28, 29, and 30, and July 1. There will be association meetings, recitals, organ recitals, and concerts. Forest Park University Hotel will be the official headquarters. All State music teachers' associations are invited to co-operate. They may write to the secretary, Francis L. York, 240 Woodward Avenue, Detroit, Mich.

May 16 is the date set for the next annual convention of the American Federation of Musicians. The meeting will be held in the Amsterdam Opera House, New York, and the three hundred and eighty local associations reported at the present time will probably all send delegates. The organization is international, having jurisdiction over the entire American continent. There are some locals in Canada, one in Alaska, and an application is pending from Porto Rico.



LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE WAR FROM VARIOUS POINTS OF VIEW.

Two Views as to War Without a Declaration.

IT is being asked in England whether Japan did not treat her ally unfairly in beginning war without a declaration. Henry Norman, writing in the *English World's Work*, holds the first attack on Port Arthur to have really constituted an act unfair to England. He says :

"The suddenness with which the Japanese attacked after breaking off negotiations has been the subject of much discussion in diplomatic circles. It is now freely stated by those likely to be well informed that the original attack upon Port Arthur was as much a surprise to the British Government as it was to the Russians themselves. Considering the terms of the alliance between the countries and the grave interests involved for Great Britain by the war, it is a serious matter if our allies precipitated hostilities before giving our government any opportunity of expressing an opinion or making a final effort to preserve peace, and probably more will be heard of this. Another matter, too, of importance is the action of the Japanese Government in proclaiming their treaty declaring the independence of Korea. This independence was originally declared by the Anglo-Japanese alliance, and it is difficult to see on what grounds and for what reasons the Japanese have thought it necessary to secure it again by another diplomatic instrument. At the time of writing, the new Japanese treaty has not been recognized by Great Britain."

Gen. Sir Frederick Maurice, however, writing in the *Nineteenth Century*, justifies the Japanese attack on Port Arthur, before declaring war, on the ground that declarations of war are neither necessary nor customary.

"I could, during the two centuries, trace no case which justified the assumption that modern nations considered themselves under any obligation to send to a foreign court a warning of coming war, delivered as a declaration of war at the foreign court, in any instance in which advantage was to be gained by adhering to the principles of Baron Brunnow. As a rule, a 'declaration of war' is of precisely the same kind as those that were issued by Japan and by Russia, respectively, after the war had begun. Our declarations of war have been issued in a very solemn manner on the steps of the Royal Exchange. They warn all the King's subjects of the fact of war, and prescribe to them the con-

duct that it behooves them to follow in consequence. From time, place, and circumstance, that cannot be regarded as intended to warn the threatened power; and they have, in fact, in almost every instance, been preceded by fierce fighting which has brought on the war."

Japan's Enviably Financial Position.

In the *Nineteenth Century*, Mr. O. Eltzbacher writes upon Japan's finances, and realizes more clearly than do many writers the strength of the Japanese position. Incidentally, he pays deserved praise to the Japanese statistics, which have attained a more marvelous completeness under the guiding influence of Mr. Sakatani, vice-minister of finance, and his able assistant, Mr. Yamazaki, now on a special mission to England.

"In reality, Japan bears her military and naval expenditure very easily, for if we investigate her financial position we find that, though her military progress has been marvelously quick, her economic progress has been considerably quicker. Japan has astonished the world by her military successes, but she will astonish it still more by her successes in manufactures and commerce, in shipping and finance, in agriculture and mining."

THE JAPANESE NATIONAL DEBT.

So far as national debts go, Japan stands in the best position of all the powers, as witness the following table :

NATIONAL DEBTS IN 1901.

	£ s. d.			
Commonwealth of Australia.....	51	8	4	per head of population
Portugal.....	33	1	0	" " "
France.....	28	4	9	" " "
Uruguay.....	27	11	7	" " "
Argentina.....	18	14	11	" " "
Great Britain.....	18	9	11	" " "
Italy.....	15	17	11	" " "
Egypt.....	10	12	2	" " "
Russia.....	4	19	8	" " "
Sweden.....	3	15	5	" " "
Mexico.....	3	14	0	" " "
Japan.....	1	6	4	" " "

"From these figures, it is clear that Japan's national debt is insignificant when compared with those of other countries, and particularly insignificant when we bear in mind that the huge indebtedness of Australia, Uruguay, Argentina, and other countries is swelled still further by the additional foreign indebtedness on account of vast corporation loans, and on account of harbor works, railways, mines, factories, and

other enterprises. The interest annually due on the Japanese national debt comes to but one shilling and two pence per head of population, which is equal to a single day's wage of the average Japanese workman. Japan can, consequently, easily provide the interest on her national debt. The yearly interest on the British national debt comes to about ten shillings per head of population, which is equal to two and one-half days' wages of the average British workman. Therefore, it is clear that, measured by the wages standard, Japan should find it much easier to pay the interest on her national debt than does Great Britain. Japan is certainly indebted to the world for ideas, but she is not in debt to the world for money. The 'tribute' which she has to send, yearly, abroad for borrowed money comes, probably, to no more than one million pounds sterling.

A THRIFTY NATIONAL POLICY.

"Though Japan has spent much money, she has not been a spendthrift, for she has spent it wisely. The money which the government has expended has been the seed from which the great economic prosperity of Japan has sprung. Neither her army nor her navy, neither her schools nor her model factories, neither her commercial missions nor her scientific institutions, have been shams or make-believes. If we look through the most detailed government accounts, we find efficiency and economy, forethought and prudence, writ large everywhere. Consequently, we are justified in concluding that Japan's financial position will prove as strong as have proved her army and navy."

Can Japan Stand a Long War?

They have been celebrating, in Tokio, the semi-centennial of Commodore Perry's "opening up" of Japan. M. Pierre Leroy-Beaulieu, the French economist, considers, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, the growth of the empire in these fifty years and what are its resources for a long war. He describes in detail the characteristics of the Japanese—their sobriety, economy, charm of manner, and striking naval and military efficiency. It may be noted incidentally that he claims that France has played a great part in the organization both of the Japanese navy and of the Japanese army. He proceeds to discuss the all-important question of finance. He goes at great length into this subject, speaks highly of the Japanese men as war material, and arrives at the conclusion that it is quite an exaggeration to suppose that Japan could not support her armaments for a long time, and that she made war because she could no longer main-

tain her forces on what was really a war footing. He adds that the war will not be stopped by lack of money on the part of Japan, for, though poorer than her antagonist, she nevertheless possesses no slight resources. She has thus far managed her finances with consummate skill, and she has the prospect of being able to raise money on fairly satisfactory terms, both in London and New York.

How long will the war last? M. Leroy-Beaulieu is cautious in answering this question, but gives it as his opinion in general that the conflict will last a long time. He thinks that in Manchuria the Japanese will be beaten by sheer numbers, while they will probably succeed in making good their position in Korea. The fall of Port Arthur would exert a profound effect, not so much in a military as in a political sense. One of the most curious characteristics of this war is that it would be extremely difficult for either combatant to force the other to make peace by inflicting a really vital blow. M. Leroy-Beaulieu looks forward to an intervention of neutral powers at the end of the conflict, in order to hinder the conqueror from pushing his victory too far. No matter how great her victory, M. Leroy-Beaulieu does not believe that Russia would be permitted to invade Japan. England and the United States would both intervene, he believes, were such a plan projected. As to the ulterior effects of the war upon the yellow races, it is evident that Europe will have to take into account, in the future, these mysterious peoples whom she has awakened, by the impact of her civilization, from the sleep of centuries.

The Japanese Foot and the War.

In Manchuria, says E. Ledrain, in *l'Illustration*, the victory will, no doubt, be with the army which has the best feet. While giving full credit to the Japanese for their bravery, endurance, sobriety, and discipline, this writer declares that the soldiers of the Mikado are bound to have trouble with their feet in the present war. The civilization of the West, he points out, has benefited the Japanese in every respect but that of foot-gear. "It may be said without a paradox that the Japanese foot is much less easily adapted than his head to European ideas." Accustomed for so many centuries to go barefoot, or with only the sandals of straw, it will be some time before the shoe of the Western peoples will be comfortable on the Japanese foot. This fact, he declares, was evident in the war with China, a decade ago, and is bound to show itself again in the forced marches which the Japanese will have to make in the present war.

Russia's Prospects of Success.

Russia will retrieve her losses, Dr. E. J. Dillon believes. In the *Contemporary Review*, he has a summary of Russian prospects which is optimistic, to say the least.

The confusion on the Siberian Railroad "has been rapidly changed by Prince Khilkoff. From all parts of Russia came wagons, locomotives, engineers, engine-drivers, assistant station-masters, and mechanics. Higher wages were offered to all officials volunteering to go to the far East, premiums rewarded those who finished their work before the expiration of the term allowed by contract, and thus, in a relatively short time Russia's sole line of communication worked far more smoothly and efficiently than it ever did since it was constructed. Doubtless, the cold on the Baikal told heavily on the soldiers, who at first had to march over it or to sit in wooden sledges, and some of them had their ears and noses frost-bitten; but the harrowing stories told of scores of deaths by frost, and of a train full of troops going through the ice and carrying all the men to the bottom of the deep lake, are mere mischievous war myths. In the beginning, confusion, chaos, and delay marked the course of the military traffic, but ever since the first four weeks, perfect order has prevailed, and Prince Khilkoff is so energetic and hopeful that he has telegraphed to St. Petersburg to say that he expects to be able to move seven or eight thousand soldiers daily as soon as the warm weather sets in."

Dr. Dillon adds that, financially, Russia can hold out much longer than Japan. She has £53,200,000 (\$266,000,000) available, but the war may entail the disappearance of M. Witte's gold standard and the return to a depreciated paper currency.

The Vast Possible Chinese Army.

Chinamen possess most excellent potential qualifications for soldiers, is the opinion of Colonel Grandprey, formerly military attaché to the French legation in Peking. Colonel Grandprey, writing in the *Revue de Paris*, asserts that the Chinese are a remarkably homogeneous people, and that even the difference of dialects disappears at a comparatively short distance from the sea.

The Chinaman has an extraordinary vitality; he has a large family, partly, no doubt, because of the necessities of ancestor-worship, and he lives to a great age. Moreover, the Chinaman prospers quite regardless of climate, whereas the Japanese have found it impossible to colonize Formosa because it is too hot, and Yesso because it is too cold. China is capable, there-

fore, of having an army stronger, physically, than those of all neighboring countries. The Chinese are splendid marchers, and get along very well on nothing but rice and tea. Moreover, the Chinaman has no nerves, unless he is an opium-smoker, and as this is rather an expensive vice, the classes which would supply recruits for the army are practically free from it. This absence of nerves not only simplifies the medical service, but also renders the Chinaman indifferent to personal comfort. It is not necessary to protect him from mosquitoes, from heat, or from cold, and he never forgets his drill when he has once learned it. Altogether, he seems to be the most convenient soldier in the world, for he can sleep anywhere and on anything, and at any time that it may be necessary for him to sleep. Public spirit and patriotism are practically unknown in China, though there have been, of late years, some symptoms of a change in that respect; the army, therefore, appears to the general mass of Chinamen to be a band of parasites which costs much and produces no effect. Fraud and dishonesty are very rife in all the public services of China, and it is usual for the dishonest to hide their embezzlements by arson. The ministry of finance at Peking regularly catches fire every two or three years. On the other hand, curiously enough, in commerce the Chinese are remarkable for their probity.

It follows from all this that a Chinese army could be raised which would be a most potent military force if it was commanded and led by officers who possessed the two gifts of imagination and accuracy, in which the Chinese are themselves deficient. Colonel Grandprey evidently hopes that China will in time be provided with such an army, for then—to use his own words—this vast country would no longer attract by its weakness the covetousness of foreigners, and so would cease to be a danger to the peace of the world.

Will China Occupy Manchuria?

Mr. D. W. Boulger, in an article on "The Neutrality of China," in the *Contemporary Review*, urges that the Chinese troops should occupy Manchuria when the Japanese drive the Russians north, which he regards as the probable issue of the war. China, he maintains, could do this without any breach of neutrality.

"Moreover, the Chinese Government can make a very good display of force. The foreign-drilled army of Yuan-Shi-Kai, the viceroy of Pe-chi-li, cannot, after every deduction has been made for exaggeration, now number less than fifty thousand men."

The Stake of Korea.

Korea stands to win or lose much in the present war, in the opinion of Homer B. Hulbert, editor of the *Korea Review* (published in English, in Seoul). Korea is now definitely committed to a pro-Japanese, anti-Russian attitude, and she must stand by the consequences of her recent treaty with the Mikado. Her whole future is involved in the present war. She must have Japanese victory for her future well-being.

"Korea has reached a definite crisis in her history. If Russia win, Korea will become a small fraction of that heterogeneous mass called the Holy Russian Empire, for by signing an offensive and defensive alliance with Japan, Korea becomes the foe of Russia, and this will be all the excuse Russia needs for seizing the whole peninsula in case the war terminate favorably for her. Having made this alliance, therefore, it is the business of all Koreans, both official and non-official, to bend every energy to the securing of a Japanese victory. . . . Russia secured her predominance by pandering to the worst elements in Korean officialdom. Japan holds it by strength of arms, but she holds it in such a way that it gives promise of something better. The word reform never passed the Russians' lips. It is the insistent cry of Japan. The welfare of the Korean people never showed its head above the Russian horizon, but it fills the whole vision of Japan; not from altruistic motives, mainly, but because the prosperity of Korea and that of Japan rise and fall with the same tide."

The Red Cross in the War.

On February 29, the first sanitary train sent out by the Russian Red Cross Society left St. Petersburg for the far East. The train has no particular destination. It will go back and forth in the rear of the Russian army during its operations in Korea and Manchuria. The Grand Duchess Marie Pavlovna, the head and organizer of the present activities of the Red Cross Society in Russia, has given largely. It will be remembered, also, that Count Cassini, the Russian ambassador to the United States, has succeeded in raising a large sum, which will be forwarded to St. Petersburg for the use of the society, which, however, will aid wounded, needy Japanese as well as Russians. *L'Illustration* has a descriptive article on the work of the Russian Red Cross Society, and, in another issue, also tells of the efforts of a number of eminent French ladies in this direction. At the head of the French movement is the Marquise de Montabello, wife of the former French ambassador to St. Petersburg.

THE THREATENING FUTURE OF RUSSIA.

PRINCE ESPER UKHTOMSKY, the well-known Russian editor and statesman, contributes to *Die Woche* (Berlin) a thoughtful article under this title. Prince Ukhtomsky was bitterly opposed to the war with Japan. In this article, he declares that war was entirely unnecessary; that the national development of Russia and Japan might have gone on side by side with intelligent sympathy but for the crude diplomacy and jingoism of the war parties in both countries.

Russia's mission in Asia, he says, is one of civilization, not of conquest. No one in Russia really desired war. "Every one looked upon territorial conquest with aversion, and placed considerations of internal administration far above our policy in eastern Asia." Personally, he says, "it makes my heart bleed when I see how our good relations with Eastern peoples will be ruined; how our great mission in Asia has been complicated; how inopportunistly has come the hour for our final reward,—access to the open sea. Terrible things await us. The material injury [to Russia] is unimportant; not so the price of victory. What can come of this battle of Titans, in a sphere where the real benefactor has no object? The war with Japan! No one but Europeans have any need of this war without idea, without possible result. In this struggle between two peaceful-spirited powers there is some terrible misunderstanding."

PORTENTS FROM JAPAN.

Despite the good intentions of Russia toward Japan, Prince Ukhtomsky continues, "this young, ambitious, and strenuously active but poor nation, with no support, with no real insight into our side of the question, equipped itself with education from abroad, by sheer intelligence raised itself, and gradually developed an unmistakable hate for Russia, which assumed that we were craft, faithlessness, and high-handedness personified." Russia's mission on the continent of Asia "is not to fight battles and oppress peoples;" and yet, "have we made enough of our moral and spiritual possibilities?" There is danger to the success of Russia's great mission. "The mighty Asiatic war—with a possibility of a great invasion of India—the revolution of the Chinese colossus, the absorption of a myriad mass of yellow peoples, . . . these are tremendous facts. This is our great burning question." Russia started from Europe and went east because she had a motive, a mission. The Japanese dream of the twentieth century, says this writer, to play the rôle of modern Huns, would bring them, naturally, to Peking. In the

Chinese capital, however, they realize that the struggle which is on at present between Russia and the Mongolian islanders is of more importance than any other question to the Chinese Empire. "It all could have been done, and was being done, quietly and peacefully," when, "in the twinkling of an eye, the die was cast, war broke out, and Japan reached out for the mainland." Prince Ukhtomsky accuses the English press of having flattered the Japanese and made them overbearing and overconfident in their future. But for England, Japan would never have braved Russia. Russia can civilize the far Orient, he believes, but Japan cannot.

Will the War Unite Russia?

"(Edipus," in a well-informed article on "Russia and the War" in the *Fortnightly Review*, rejects the idea that internal unrest is likely to force Russia to discontinue the war. The Russian, he says, has the makings of a thorough-paced revolutionist, but we shall have to wait till after the war before any effect is perceived on the internal condition of the country.

"The notion that Russia's effectiveness in the far East may be hampered by an explosion of unrest and disaffection at home is, I believe, a delusion. There is an overriding intensity in the quality of Russian patriotism that clears a way through inconceivable obstacles and gathers to itself the momentum of a national and undistracted energy at every crisis. The spirit of sacrifice, endurance, loyalty, and patience has never failed Czardom in the past, even under the strain of invasion and defeat. That mystical faith, and all the more potent for being mystical, in the destiny of Russia and the Slav race, the faith expressed by Pobiedonostseff in the words 'Russia is no state; *Russia is a world!*' . . . has never yet been dimmed by any disaster. What reason is there, what warrant can be drawn from Russian history, for supposing that this war is destined to loosen its cohesiveness?"

Japan's challenge has rallied all Russia to the defense of the government, even the revolutionary elements.

"I think we can make no greater mistake than to suppose that in this conflict the Russian intensity and determination and self-sacrifice will be any less national than the Japanese, that the war is not a popular war because the 'people' have not 'sanctioned' it, that defeats, even many defeats, will cow the Russian spirit into whining for peace, or that the fragmentary, unorganized elements of unrest, under cover of the confusion and hardships of war, will seek occasion to explode."

RUSSIA AND THE POLES.

IN view of the conflicting reports from Russian Poland via Berlin, Vienna, and St. Petersburg,—reports of the Poles intending to revolt, and reports of the Poles participating in Russian patriotic manifestations,—the *Przeglad Wszepolski* (the Pan-Polish Review), of Cracow, publishes what must be accepted as an authoritative *exposé* of the attitude of the Poles toward Russia, since it is an address issued to the Polish population of Russian Poland by the Central Committee of the National League. The National League is a secret Polish patriotic organization whose influence extends over all three sections of the former republic of Poland, though its chief work is in Russian Poland, where it has its headquarters, in Warsaw. It occupies the same position today as was held by the Central Committee (subsequently the national government) which prepared the Poles for the revolution of 1863. In its address, the Central Committee of the National League says:

SYMPATHIES OF THE POLES.

"Our nation receives with joy the intelligence of the disasters of Russia, for with its political instinct, with its heart, it is on the side of Russia's foes. The phrases about a struggle of the white race with the yellow race, a struggle of European civilization with Asiatic barbarity, will not gain us, because we know that it is Russia, with her autocratic government, that is Asiatic barbarity. We know what the brave, industrious Japanese have done for civilization on the confines of Asia, while we gaze continually on what Russia has done for the annihilation of that civilization in Europe, on our own soil. Japan is fighting, not with a representative of Europe, but with a governmental Asiatic horde, with destructive barbarians who have for many years trod, in Poland, upon the work of the civilization of ten centuries, and who today are destroying, in Finland, the acquisition of many generations."

Although so many thousands of Poles are fighting under compulsion on the Russian side; although, in consequence of this war, Poland is menaced with heavy economic losses, "Polish hearts will respond with a joyous beating at each victory over Russia's troops, for each of these victories is a blow dealt the hateful governmental machine, is a blow dealt the organization of the foes who are pillaging and ravaging our country, obstructing its development, killing the forces and the culture of the nation, depraving our young generations in the school, and proselytizing by force to the state religion those who reject that religion with aversion.

HOPES OF THE POLES.

"Though we always remember that Poland has more than one foe, that it is not Russia alone that menaces us with annihilation, we know well that the shackles hampering the main part of our nation render us feeble against all our foes, and that the loosening of those shackles will free our forces for an effective struggle with our foes—a struggle in which we can count only upon ourselves. In the disasters of Russia our nation welcomes the harbingers of a better future for itself."

As, however, the authors of this address do not see in Russia's struggle in the far East a war that will change Russia's boundaries on the west, they say that the Poles cannot come out as the active allies of Russia's foes of the present moment, and that they must guard against illusions, "for those illusions will only render more difficult for us the extracting of due advantages from the present situation." Even though the Russo-Japanese war should finally turn out successful for the Russians, the address says that it will, without fail, be a catastrophe.

"It will inevitably be attended with the lowering, in the eyes of the Asiatic peoples, of the prestige of the Russian Empire; with a serious shaking of Russia's finances; and, what is most important, with the manifestation of the impotence and the perniciousness of government by bureaucrats. The present war must hasten the internal crisis and bring nearer the moment of the reconstruction of the political constitution of the Russian state, while the period of grievous struggles opening for Russia in the East will constrain her to a change of policy with respect to the nations oppressed by her, particularly with respect to our nation. Russia will be compelled to reckon with us. On our behavior at that moment, on our political sense, on our resolution and energy, on the concord in our national ranks, will depend the lot of the next Polish generations."

CONDUCT OF THE POLES.

The authors of the address counsel the Polish community to guard, while waiting for that moment, against false steps, against everything that might throw it out of equilibrium, and that might, in that way, lessen its forces. Such false steps, in the present situation, would be all unreasonable acts, which, while they would not greatly hamper the government in its military action, would introduce only disorganization in the ranks of the Poles themselves. Attempts in this direction have already been made, and will undoubtedly be renewed in the measure of the further military failures of Russia.

"We must act in opposition to them with all our strength. We cannot allow either foreign governments, through their agents, to lead our people in a direction advantageous to those governments, nor can we allow even one drop of Polish blood to be shed in useless and unreasonable attempts incited by immature elements in our own nation. . . . We have strong faith that the page of history which is now being turned will disclose for us new horizons of life and new fields for action. And we are sure that this to-morrow is near, and that it will find our nation sensible of its situation and of its tasks, united morally, full of fresh forces for the work and the struggle for its most sacred rights."

A FRENCH VIEW OF THE "YELLOW PERIL."

TWO forms of the "Yellow Peril," the economic and the military, are considered by Albert Métin in the *Revue Bleue* (Paris). China and Japan, he points out, by means of their mineral wealth—hitherto unexploited—and the cheap labor they are able to throw into the markets of the world, may cause much trouble to the Western world, and even bring about a reduction of the wages of labor. If the present movement away from agriculture toward industrialism be continued to its logical end, he believes, the Orient, particularly Japan, will cause a real economic peril to the countries of Europe and to America. Already most of the Western methods and facts of industrial life have also become characteristic of business in China and Japan. Having Western tools and equipment, the Mongolians may beat the West on its own fields.

"For a long time, the Chinese and the Japanese have understood how to 'syndicate themselves,' and what it means to strike. The solidarity of occupation is nowhere so nearly universal and on such a firm basis as in China. A boycotted European would not be able to find a single workman or servant. The modern syndicate, on the English or American pattern, was introduced into Japan a dozen years ago. There are Japanese trade-unions of printers, of mechanics, and of dock hands, which have begun to establish relations with similar organizations in Occidental countries. Even the socialistic propaganda has made its appearance in Japan. . . . The problem of the redistribution of wealth is facing this country which the theorists about the yellow peril believe to be exclusively occupied with production and exportation."

The Oriental peoples, M. Métin believes, will have to pass through the same economic evolution as the nations of the West, with the same obstacles to meet,—lack of capital, poor quality

of labor, lowering of wages. Oriental competition is only a passing phase of the world's economic development. The commercial empire will not pass into the hands of yellow peoples.

Considering the possibility of a military yellow peril, this writer declares that Japan is too poor ever to become a world-danger. When compared with the size of her budget, Japan's military expenditures are the highest in the world. Europeans see her army and her fleet, but if they could realize her financial situation they would cease to worry over the so-called yellow peril. The country is poor, the tax rate high, and the national debt very large. Japan is even now, we are told, at the bottom of her treasury and at the end of her credit. "The Japanese people are really a nation of Asiatic farmers, poor, and quite incapable of supplying war funds at all comparable with those of Occidental nations." As for the Chinese, they are a nation of farmers and merchants, governed by a class of civil functionaries, with a civilization entirely of peace. There is no Chinese army worth consideration, but, in the opinion of this writer, a China exploited and armed by Japan would be a very serious problem. The Chinese peril was *nil* before the intervention of European armies. Europe has committed two serious blunders,—she has threatened the integrity of China, and, at the same time, has incited the Chinese against this or that rival, with the result that the Chinese now consider the West hopelessly divided, and believe that they can beat it off by their diplomacy.

American Influence in Europe on the War.

Continental writers are not leaving the United States out of their consideration on the subject of possible European complications. In the *Nineteenth Century*, Demetrius Boulger declares that Germany is trying to influence France to join with her in aiding Russia, thus bringing about war with England. Against this German delusion Mr. Boulger sets one of his own by hinting that the United States would join Great Britain if such a misfortune were to occur.

"If the United States were to send half a dozen battleships across the Atlantic to pass the next few months at the mouth of the Thames, the evidence thus afforded that England did not stand alone in the world would effectually baffle German machinations, and procure the interval needed for French opinion to become solid on the point that sentimental grounds are not sufficient for France to risk her whole future on behalf of Russia, and to destroy, at the same time, all chance of a genuine, uncostly, and disinterested accord with England."

RUSSIA IN MANCHURIA,—A RUSSIAN STATEMENT.

THE southeastward movement of Russia from Siberia, for the purpose of securing an ice-free port on the Pacific Ocean, began as early as the middle of the last century, we are informed by M. Khovitz, in the *Niva*, the popular illustrated weekly of St. Petersburg. In 1858, Russia did not possess any of the Siberian country along the Sea of Japan, on one of the bays of which Vladivostok is now situated. The whole of this eastern coast, and also the region of the Amur lying between the Yabonoi Ridge and the middle course of the Amur River, was ceded by China to Russia between 1850 and 1860. The whole of this territory was formerly a part of Manchuria.

The Trans-Siberian Railroad has been the maker and developer of this region, continues this Russian writer. The construction of the railroad has been, for the empire, "an undertaking of vast moment, not only from a strategic point of view, but also from the standpoint of civilization in general. Russia has not hesitated to make enormous expenditures in order to create more suitable means of communication with the Pacific coast, and thus to increase considerably the volume of her trade with the countries of the far East. Her work has been invaluable in behalf of commerce between western Europe and eastern Asia." Manchuria, a country as vast in extent as Austria-Hungary, and known for its natural resources, has been opened to the Western world by the Manchurian Railroad, or, as it is officially known, the Eastern Chinese Railroad. The work of construction lasted ten years. On May 19, 1891, the Emperor Nicholas II., then the heir-apparent, laid the foundation of the Siberian Railroad, and on November 1, 1901, ex-Minister of Finance Witte reported to the Emperor that the railroad was completed.

EVENTS HELPED RUSSIAN PLANS.

"Russian diplomacy, meanwhile, cleared the way for a conquest of civilization in the far East. It utilized for its own advantage the constant jealousy then existing between Japan and China. The war which broke out between these two empires, the increasing financial difficulties of China, the Boxer uprising and its suppression by the united efforts of the powers having interests in the far East, the occupation of Kiao-Chau by the Germans, the isolation of England during the Boer war, and, finally, the condition of Korea,—of all these circumstances Russia took advantage to conclude profitable treaties with the Chinese Government. The hostile action of the Manchurian population toward

the Russian outposts guarding the Eastern Chinese Railroad gave the empire just cause to occupy the country until it was completely pacified."

The negotiations with the Chinese Government for permission to extend the railroad through Manchuria to Vladivostok, the founding of the Russo-Chinese Bank at Peking, the concession by China to Russia for a railroad through northern Manchuria, are discussed by this writer, who says, further, that, "in order to protect this road during its construction from the hostile elements of the Manchurian population, Russia, with the consent of China, placed a sufficiently strong garrison along the line of the road." A later concession to build a road southward to Port Arthur, and to exploit the mineral wealth of that region, necessitated "a protection guard of ten detachments of Cossacks and eight battalions of infantry." Of the twelve million population of Manchuria, but one million are Manchus, the rest being Chinese, Tunguses, and various other nomadic tribes, with one Mohammedan people, the Dungsans, settled in that region for political reasons by the Chinese Government. It is the antagonism between these widely differing barbarous peoples that has

been "a great hindrance to the economic development of the country."

"Robber bands, constantly increasing in number, disturb the peace of the region. The Chinese authorities were unable to quell the disturbances. There is no reason, therefore, to suspect Russia of any secret designs in sending her military forces there. These were really necessary to protect the railroads from the attacks of the disturbing elements."

HARBIN, PORT ARTHUR, AND DALNY.

Harbin, formerly an insignificant Chinese village, is becoming, under Russian rule, a flourishing city. Shipping industry has been developed, building has been wonderfully increased, and trade is flourishing. "Russia spent colossal sums in the construction of the Manchurian Railroad, which had to be rebuilt three times. . . . As soon as the rails had been laid on the main line, the Boxer uprising broke out, and these rebels destroyed the tracks for a long distance. . . . Many railroad stations were originally built in uninhabited localities, but these are now the centers of colonization for immigrants from European Russia."

M. Khovitz describes the importance of Port Arthur, and recounts the history of its cession to Russia by China. Before the war with Japan, he says, China spent some millions in attempting to turn Port Arthur into a first-class military harbor. German engineers built thirteen forts along the heights around the town. In 1897, Germany acquired Kiao-Chau, and Russia, with the consent of the Chinese Government, at once occupied Port Arthur, which had been returned to China after the war with Japan.

"In this cession, the Chinese Government was actuated by fear lest England lay hands on Port Arthur,—a fear which was not without foundation. To the diplomatic world, Russia explained that she made only temporary use of this port for her navy, because she had no ice-free harbor on the Siberian coast. Really, Russia had in view the building of another port, and in 1898 she concluded a treaty with China by which the latter leased to her, for twenty-five years, Port Arthur, the Bay of Talienwan, and the whole east coast between these two points." With this concession, also, came the right to combine Port Arthur with Talienwan Bay, and in August, 1899, the Russian Government built the city of Dalny, "the commercial importance of which grows with every year. Every newcomer, especially merchants, is treated very favorably in Dalny. Hundreds of skilled mechanics and merchants, and thousands of coolies, at once settled there. In 1902, 717 steamers and 1,418 junks arrived in the harbor. Owing to the Boxer troubles in 1900, the Russian army was increased to 120,000 men. As China could not repay the empire for her expenditures in suppressing the Boxers, Russia declared that she would occupy Manchuria until such order would be restored as would guarantee the fulfillment of its obligations by the Chinese Government. Then, in opposition to the Russo-Chinese agreement concerning Manchuria, England concluded an alliance with Japan."

THE FRANCO-RUSSIAN ALLIANCE AND THE WAR.

WHAT are France's obligations to her ally in the latter's struggle with Japan? When the famous Dual Alliance was formed, it was generally believed that the republic feared isolation through the efforts of the then young and much-dreaded German Emperor, and welcomed Russian friendship as a safeguard to her position in Europe. Such a contingency as a war in the far East, between Russia and Japan, was not even dreamed of. Nevertheless, it is evident that France is now worried over the possi-

bility of being called upon to aid the Czar in the Orient. The famous secret treaty has been denounced by one of the Socialist members of the French Parliament, M. Jean Jaurès, in a recent speech at Saint-Étienne. This speech, which has aroused considerable discussion and much opposition from the French Russophiles, is published verbatim, without change, by the *Revue Socialiste* (Paris).

THE ALLIANCE AND THE FRENCH SOCIALISTS.

What possible reason can there be, M. Jaurès asked, for France to pour out her blood and treasure to appease Russia's land hunger? To begin with, he says, for twelve years the French Socialist party, on every possible occasion since it has had a representative in Parliament, has asked the ministry to state the terms of the alliance. "What is the text and what are the clauses of the contract? To what are we committed? To what will France be committed? Will this agreement force her to follow the Russia of the Czar in all his far-away Asiatic enterprises? Speak! Explain!" To this question the only answer has been like this: "'You are mischief-makers,' or 'you are not patriots, you would isolate France, you would deliver her to her enemy and us all to be outraged.'" For asking the terms of a secret treaty which the people have never ratified, M. Jaurès continued, the Socialists are denounced as unpatriotic and dangerous by the Nationalists and Chauvinists generally. "But we must ask the question until it is answered. The matter must be explained. It must be made known whether France is bound by a secret agreement to follow the Russian army in its work in far-off Manchuria, and whether some day,—to-morrow, or the day after to-morrow,—at the first appeal, the republic, which, for thirty years, has enjoyed peace, which has learned, little by little, to recuperate her energies without the aid of foolish jingoism, whether France will be compelled to spend, at the farther end of Asia and that Russia may gain Manchuria, her blood, her money, her strength of arm, and her credit."

WHAT COULD FRANCE GAIN?

The republic is now at peace with all the world, and, thanks to the efforts of French workmen (he said), the friendliest feelings now exist between France and England and France and Italy. Addressing an audience of Socialists, he pointed out that "it was our peace-loving politics of the working class which has saved the world from a universal war." He does not believe in the yellow peril, and denounced in the strongest terms the militarism of Europe. While now too

late to discuss the merits of the Franco-Russian alliance as originally conceived, M. Jaurès denounced it to-day for its secrecy and because its supporters hold that it makes France liable for a war in Asia. It may have saved France from the first hasty ambitions of the present German Kaiser, but it is incomprehensible to M. Jaurès that "since it is Russia which is menacing the integrity of China by seizing Manchuria . . . we can now be allied with Russia to preserve Chinese integrity, which she has threatened." He recalled the part taken by France in compelling Japan to give up Port Arthur in 1895, and does not wonder that the Japanese should feel animosity toward the republic. Peace, he concluded, "peace with all the world,—peace is the highest ideal, the grandest dream, the greatest need of France."

Russia and the Fashoda Incident.

To the charge that, while France has been of assistance to Russia, the great empire has done nothing for her republican ally, an anonymous writer in the *Revue Universelle* (Paris) replies by recounting what he declares to have been a plain, open offer by Russia to support France against England at the time of the excitement over Fashoda, in November, 1898. The occupation of Fashoda by the French military explorer, Major Marchand, it will be remembered, almost precipitated an Anglo-French war. This writer quotes from articles recently appearing in the *Figaro*, of Paris, to the effect that the Czar Nicholas II. charged his minister of foreign affairs, Count Muravieff, to say to President Faure:

"The alliance contracted between France and Russia has established complete solidarity. I come to declare to you, in the name of the Emperor, that when you fight, we fight. . . . But try to gain time. At present we can only aid you by a diversion toward India. It should be known that we can only arrive at the frontier after a second campaign, after our way from Tashkent has been accomplished. . . . Therefore, gain time; but if that is not possible for you, count on your allies." President Faure replied that the Fashoda affair had been terminated by the recall of Marchand. The writer also quotes from an alleged reply of the Russian minister of foreign affairs to Minister Delcassé, on his visit to St. Petersburg: "In this matter, as in all others relative to Egypt, the Imperial Government renews the assurance that it is resolved to proceed with you, and to conform its attitude to that of the French Government." Although these facts were known in England, the writer quoted declares they were not published in the Fashoda Yellow Book, for political reasons.

RUSSIA'S OFFICIAL ATTITUDE TOWARD PROTESTANTISM.

WHAT are the prospects of Protestant missions in lands yet to be brought under Russian rule? This is a question of more than academic interest to some of the great missionary boards of America. Should Manchuria become completely Russianized, what would be the effect on the American missionaries at work there? In the *Missionary Review of the World* for May, Dr. Henry O. Dwight presents a few facts tending to show what attitude the Czar's government may be expected to take in this matter. He shows that it is an error to suppose that Protestantism is forbidden in Russia or in Russian dependencies, stating that he has met Protestants who held high office in the Russian army.

"Protestant churches have the same rights as other forms of recognized religion, and their ministers live in peace under Russian rule so long as they do not attempt to talk to others on theology or to win men to their views. I have personal knowledge of the state of the Armenian Protestants who passed under Russian control with the cession of the Kars district of Asiatic Turkey, in 1878. Those regions were instantly changed from being a prey to all marauders who chose to call themselves Mohammedans into the sure enjoyment of peace and justice, which should make the dwellers therein forever grateful to an emperor who knew how to secure an even-handed justice between rival races."

This is high praise, coming from a Protestant missionary, but Dr. Dwight would not have it assumed that the attitude of the Russian state church is wholly friendly to Protestantism. As regards those who do not belong to it, the Church, particularly in Finland and Trans-Caucasian Armenia, is described as "hungry-eyed," seeking whom it may devour.

"If any one leaves the church in which he is born, he must join the Russian Church. If a man and woman of different religious pedigree—a Protestant and a Roman Catholic, for instance—marry, their children must be brought up by the Russian Church. And latterly the Russian Church has come into the church schools of the sects to put away the language of the people, to forbid such schools from carrying scholars beyond the elementary stage, and to insist that no one can teach in higher educational establishments except in the Russian language and under authorization of the Russian department of public instruction. Those who suffer thus from oppression of the mind and soul often whisper to foreign visitors that they would rather go to any country where oppression is of the body only. And if we sympathize with

them in this feeling, we have one more assurance that there is small common ground on which the Russian official may stand beside the Protestant missionary."

The declaration of doctrine adopted by a synod at Jerusalem in 1672 as the creed of the Greek Church, which was intended, as Dr. Dwight says, "forever to brand Protestants as heretics so effectively that no orthodox Christian can righteously enter into fraternal relations with them," is still an authorized formulary of the Church in Russia, and is known as "the Russian Catechism."

"RUSSIA WILL CARE FOR HER OWN."

While Russian officials have come in contact with Protestant missionaries in Manchuria and elsewhere, the question of dealing with missionaries already established in territory that she has actually conquered by force of arms has never yet been faced by Russia.

"During the Turkish war of 1877-78, the Russians encountered American missionaries at work in Bulgaria and in Asiatic Turkey. In each case they were, on the whole, courteous, and made no attempt to interfere. In Manchuria, the Russian officers have been quite like comrades to the Protestant medical missionaries. In Asiatic Turkey, the annexation of the Turkish province of Kars to Russia carried with it the Armenian Protestants who had been taught by American missionaries. Perhaps this one case throws some light upon the course which Russian officials may follow toward Protestant missions found in any land of their conquest. Kars was an out-station of Erzerum, which remained a Turkish possession. The Protestants living at Kars were recognized, tolerated, and protected by the Russians. By and by the missionary from Erzerum went to visit his flock in Kars. He was allowed to pass once or twice; but after the new administration was fully established the missionary was met at the frontier by a very polite official, who told him in effect that Russia can take care of her own subjects without the aid of even so amiable friends as the Americans. That ended missionary visits to Kars."

A Moravian mission to the Tartars of Daghestan, near the Caspian Sea, a Scottish mission at Karass, between the Caspian and the Black seas, and a London Society's outpost near Lake Baikal met with favor from Czar Alexander I., early in the nineteenth century, but were closed by his successor, Czar Nicholas. At the present time it is said that no Protestant minister not a Russian subject can lawfully enter the Russian Empire without special permission from the Czar himself. It would seem, then, that Russian policy regarding Protestants who

may seek to enter territory already Russian in order to work for pagans or Mohammedans is clearly defined, and affords some indication of what the policy would be in the case of acquired territory.

THE AJUN,—A TYPICAL KOREAN OFFICIAL

ONE of the most important social and governmental factors in Korean life is the *ajun*. It is he who brings the administration of the government into direct contact with the people, and it is he, also, who is accused of being at the bottom of Korean official corruption. The *Korea Review* (published in English, in Seoul) calls the *ajun* a sort of prefect's minister, for the collection of taxes. It continues:

"There is no manner of doubt that the *ajuns* abuse the people frequently, but if they were the fiends that they are painted the people would long since have exterminated them. . . . Their normal attitude is that of a buffer between the rapacity of the prefect and the exasperation of the people. They must be friends with both if possible. The prefect wants to get as much as he can, and the people want to give as little as they may. It is the *ajun's* business to steer between this Scylla and Charybdis, disappoint each party as little as possible, since neither can be satisfied, and all the time uphold his own prestige with the prefect and preserve the good-will of the people. . . . The number of *ajuns* in any district depends upon the size and wealth of the community. There are some prefectures that have only six *ajuns*. . . . In others, there will be ten, twenty, fifty, or even a hundred *ajuns*. However many there may be, they form a class by themselves,—a sort of little guild in each prefecture. . . . It is the *ajuns* who influence most largely the popular taste and feeling. They come into such close contact with the people that the latter copy after them. As a rule, the way to reach the people is through the *ajun*. He holds in his hands the greatest possibilities for good or for evil. If he is good, it will be practically impossible for an evil prefect to oppress the people. If he is bad, it will be almost equally difficult for a good prefect to govern well. Without doubt, the *ajun* is the most important factor in practical government in Korea. . . . The temptations of the *ajuns* are very great. The whole revenue of the district passes through their hands. In a sense, they have to work against both the people and the prefect. The latter wants all that he can get, and watches the *ajuns* closely for it, and the *ajuns* are ever trying to make the people give, up to the limit of their ability. Much is said about the way the *ajuns*

squeeze the people, and this is doubtless true; but the people are forever trying to evade their taxes, and use every subterfuge to jump their revenue bills. It is a case of diamond cut diamond, and the people realize it as well as the *ajun*. The qualities necessary to become a successful *ajun* make a long and formidable list. He must be tactful in the 'management' of the prefect; exact in his accounts; firm yet gentle with the people; resourceful in emergencies; masterful in crises; quick to turn to his advantage every event, and, in fact, he must have all the qualities of the successful politician."

LORD CURZON AND TIBET.

FRENCH diplomacy is evidently becoming anxious over the expedition of Colonel Younghusband to Tibet. The last British Blue Book on Tibet indicates Lord Curzon's belief in a Russian conspiracy to absorb that country. M. Bérard, writing in the *Revue de Paris*, discusses the whole subject of Tibet's relations to both England and Russia. He attempts to throw light upon the mysterious negotiations between St. Petersburg and Lassa, and believes that the revelations of a certain M. Ular exercised a deciding influence on the mind of Lord Curzon. This gentleman took the view that when the government of India annexed the district of Ladakh, which was incontestably a part of Tibet, the Dalai Lama became from thenceforward a mortal enemy of England. He had endeavored to induce the Emperor of China to intervene; but Peking was, of course, powerless. Further annexations on the part of India increased, if possible, the indignation of the Dalai Lama, or, rather, of the governing powers behind the throne at Lassa, who saw their dream of a kind of pan-Buddhism, extending over all Manchuria, Burma, Mongolia, Turkestan, and other vast areas, considerably interfered with. Hence the *rapprochement* with Russia, which was clearly forced upon Lassa by the impotence of Peking. The Tibetan envoy who furnished M. Ular with the basis of his revelations seems to have frankly looked upon the Czar as the future hope and protector of a great and powerful Buddhist theocracy.

WHAT WERE RUSSIA'S AIMS?

Later on, M. Ular explained that China and Russia had agreed to share, in future, the protection of Tibet—Russia undertaking military control, while China took charge of administration and commerce. Most significant of all, the Dalai Lama conferred upon the Czar the official title enjoyed for two centuries by the Manchu

emperors of China,—namely, "Lord and Guardian of the Gifts of the Faith." This made the Czar into a sort of Buddhist Charlemagne, and turned the Dalai Lama himself into a mere viceroy of Russia. The Pan-Buddhist movement, assiduously spread in Siam, and even in Burma and British India, aimed at checking British ambitions, and especially the dream of a railway uniting Calcutta and Peking. M. Bérard, however, thinks that Russia's real aim at Lassa was to assist her interests in Mongolia and China itself by conciliating the Buddhist clergy, while Lord Curzon was influenced by the prospect of obtaining a market for tea from Assam, as well as for the wool of Bradford. M. Bérard goes on to say that the effect of what he calls "the Curzonian imperialism" will be to bring about a Russian advance in another direction, or, rather, that that would have been the effect if the war with Japan had not broken out.

THE TROUBLE IN THE BALKANS.

A DETAILED analysis of the Balkan situation is contributed to the *Revue Universelle* (Paris) by the French political and economic writer, Fr. Maury. The conflicting interests of Russia, Austria, Germany, Turkey, and Italy in the Balkans, with the added diverse aspirations of the smaller peoples themselves, are considered, and the positions of the Christian population of Macedonia and Bulgaria are set forth. M. Maury does not believe that the Ottoman Government can be trusted to carry out its promises, except when forced to do so. The interests of the Christians in the Orient, he says, are exceedingly complex, and it may be impossible to ever reconcile them. He does not think very highly of the dual control given to Austria and Russia by the Muerzsteg convention, and he deplores the influence of German politics and capital.

"The situation remains exceedingly serious. The Porte seems incapable of bringing pacification or reorganization. Relying on the support of Germany, it is evidently completing the extermination of the Christian population by its Asiatic hordes. Austria and Russia, taken up by other interests, by the visions of conquest, and even by dreams of annexing the Balkans, exert but a feeble influence in the direction of the proposed reforms. France, England, and Italy dare not take the initiative in this region, torn as it is by conflicting interests and exposed to all sorts of unlawful ambitions. In the meanwhile, Macedonia, strewn with ruins, deserted by thousands of its inhabitants, is prostrate in the worst stage of destitution and want. The

revolutionists announce a new insurrection in the spring. Bulgaria will be drawn in to help her brothers by race. There will be both a civil and a foreign war, with its horrors and its consequences to the rest of Europe."

GREAT BRITAIN AND THE SUPREMACY OF THE SEA.

WILL Great Britain be able to maintain the naval predominance which she now holds, but which she permitted to lapse for several decades at the end of the last century? This is the subject of a study by Auguste Moireau in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. M. Moireau traces the development and growth of the British navy, particularly since 1884, when, as he tells us, Great Britain awoke to the necessity of having a navy at least more than equal to those of any two of her rivals combined. For a long time, he says, England rested on her laurels won in the Napoleonic wars, and, while dreaming of the glories won by the wooden fleets of Nelson, she forgot that steam and steel were displacing wood, and that her rivals on the Continent were advancing more rapidly than she in the building up of powerful navies. The entrance of France, Germany, Russia, and the United States, and finally Japan, into the list of great naval powers is recounted by this French writer, who, at the same time, describes the successive increases of the British navy to make it keep up England's superiority on the sea. To-day, he declares, the British naval programme must provide for, at least, one thing: for a navy not only superior to those of any other two nations combined, but to the combination of any three on the Continent,—France, Germany, and Russia especially. He believes, also, that in order to supplement the work of the fleet, a larger British army is necessary. He says:

"At the present hour, Great Britain possesses the finest and largest navy in the world, but it seems that a cloud, like a man's hand, is appearing on the horizon of Britain's security. It is the question of the provisioning of the country in case of war. England has every chance of being able to maintain the freedom of her commerce and of her transports. If, however, that chance should go against her! This terrible doubt haunts the minds of our neighbors across the channel. For a long time, England has not been able to support her inhabitants. She has sacrificed her agriculture to her industry. She is obliged to ask from foreign countries three-quarters of the commodities necessary for her subsistence. She depends, therefore, upon her merchant marine, which must have the protection of her military marine.

MORE THAN A GREAT NAVY NEEDED.

"What would happen if England, involved in a war with several great powers, should employ all her maritime resources to fight the enemies' fleets, and could not give to her merchant marine protection sufficient to maintain regular transportation of foodstuffs between foreign countries and British ports? The reserves would soon be absorbed. For it is agreed that Great Britain has only enough wheat and flour to last her people for three months. Would not the English find themselves in a most precarious position? The British fleet might blockade the fleets of its enemies in their ports, so as to prevent them from putting obstacles in the way of the provisioning of the United Kingdom. But would such a blockade always be possible with the rapid development of the new ships of war, and especially considering the surprises we may yet get from the torpedo—such as has made the Russian squadron at Port Arthur its victim—and the surprises, perhaps more serious, reserved for us from the submarine and submersible boats?"

It is practically certain, this writer admits, that England will not have to fight Japan or the United States. But, he asks, is it not possible that she will be called upon in time to blockade in their ports the fleets of France, Germany, and Russia? And, if she cannot do this, what is to become of her provisioning problem? England, he believes, is beginning to consider the gravity of the task before her,—that of constantly supporting a navy three times as great as that of any one power. And this realization, he declares, has gone a great way toward making her willing to come to a better understanding with France.

"THE END OF WAGNERISM" IN FRANCE.

AT a time when "Parsifal" and the other Wagnerian operas have an all-absorbing interest for American music-lovers, it is rather a strange coincidence that the French reviews should be publishing articles congratulating France upon having emancipated herself from Wagnerism. In *La Revue* (Paris), Camille Maclair asserts that "only now are we able to speak of Wagner with discrimination—now, when Wagnerism no longer warps us."

The musical world, particularly in Europe, this writer believes, has suffered from "the bane of Wagnerism" because it has so persistently confused Wagnerism with Wagner himself. France, he says, had to free herself. Her music had become sterile, because of her passive sub-

mission "before the most extraordinary synthetic genius of modern art." Her liberty "consists essentially in having finally produced something besides Wagnerian imitations." M. Maclair says, further :

"Ever since his death, the formidable shadow of the master has hung over artistic Europe. In France, considerations foreign to art influenced us to accept Wagner. . . . Open hostility was soon apparent. Our music was reorganized slowly. At the other extremity of Europe, Russian music continued its evolution, and in central Europe there was really nothing to report except that the talent of Brahms devoted itself to the symphony, and that Richard Strauss had ceased to exist."

"The supreme foresight of César Franck rendered us a service which can never be forgotten. He advised us to leave the theater to performers of operas, . . . and to give no more imitations of the Tetralogy, but to wait until the meteor of Baireuth had ceased to blind the eyes of the world, and meanwhile to return to the old fatherland of music,—to Bach, to Beethoven, to the musical forms of the symphony, the quartet, and the sonata. Between those who copied Wagner and lost themselves and those who were so mad as to be beyond the bounds of reason, Franck took the only logical position. In him, the chosen had their faith. It was a long and painful wait, but French music was saved."

For many years, this critic continues, musical Europe remained sterile under the influence of Wagner's "grandiose genius." "Like Victor Hugo, Wagner was oppressive. Even from the tomb, his authority persisted. One piled up obstacles in the path of letters, the other built a Colosseum over that of music. Bach and Beethoven had opened the ways; Wagner closed them." It was necessary to break loose from the "tyranny of this genius." The vast quantity of criticism and commentary excited by Wagner's work leads M. Maclair to accuse the German master of "robbing musical art of its vitality and making of it a subject for criticism and commentary only." After the failure of this terrible effort of Wagner, he says, to create an international musical world upon a German basis, "here and elsewhere there arose an instinct to return to national music,—a music springing from the soil, a sort of musical protectionism. This was the first sign of the abandonment, if not of Wagner, at least of Wagnerism." To such an instinct must be attributed the school founded by César Franck, although M. Maclair criticises this school for dissipating its strength in fighting Wagnerism instead of developing its own home art. He praises it for

having created the National Society and the Schola Cantorum, to revive the seventeenth-century music and "to fix the rôle of the French musicians of the nineteenth century against the jealous bad faith of the German critics."

It is necessary, concludes M. Maclair, to separate admiration for Wagnerism from our admiration for Wagner. He names Vincent d'Indy, Debussy, Chausson, Fauré, and Charpentier as the "grandes temperaments." The work of Wagner, he says, is like "the monad of Leibnitz, without windows upon the universe. . . . It is made by Wagner, for Wagner, in Germany. It is a prodigious German tower, a Babel, fused of all the arts, and one must always admire this work in itself. But it is a closed world set down in the midst of music, as much so as the world of Bach and Beethoven are open." It is very difficult, he continues, to speak calmly "of this man whose genius caused such trouble. Behind this clear and pure genius, which illuminates his work, there was another, diabolic, ironic, and dangerous." Wagnerism, he says, has been repudiated in France because "there has been a great desire and a great haste to bring to an end this Wagnerism for the profit of the French school of music, and to set aside Wagner as a phenomenon, glorious, but historical, classical,—good to admire, but without influence on the present."

THE RELIGIOUS CRISIS IN FRANCE.

TWO facts stand out clearly in the present religious crisis in France, and to Count Albert de Mun, the well-known French Catholic statesman and writer, they are the basic facts of the movement for the expulsion of the religious congregations from the republic. These are the dominating influence of the revolution of 1789 and the feeling (growing out of this revolutionary influence) "against the very idea of religion." In an exhaustive analysis of the whole religious crisis in France, in the *National Review*, Count de Mun declares that this crisis "brings before our eyes the tradition of that decisive epoch [the Revolution], and at the same time makes manifest the strange contradiction existing between the principles of liberty in the realm of politics proclaimed in 1789 and the intellectual despotism in the realm of philosophy inaugurated by the hatred of Christianity, which dates from the same period." Count de Mun reviews the charges made against the Catholic teaching orders in France, and declares them all unfounded and the result of the anti-religious ideas of the great revolution. This great upheaval, he reminds us, destroyed all as-

sociations. The religious associations, however, "for the reason that they answer to the requirements of certain characteristics of the Christian soul, . . . were the first to reappear." But, "whereas the spontaneous energy of religious faith and the pressing demands of charitable and educational needs soon sufficed to resuscitate the religious associations, in the economic world the revival came but slowly, for the reason that it was hampered by the existence of an unending state of war, by the resistance of successive governments in whom it produced an uneasy feeling, and by the opposition of the industrial magnates whose interests it threatened."

While the religious orders are "not an essential feature of Christianity," he contends that they are a natural product of the teachings of the Catholic Church and "a necessary factor in its organization." The history of these orders during the past century and a quarter he characterizes as marvelous. "Nothing is more creditable to humanity, nothing proves more clearly the vital energy of religious faith, than that fruitful harvest of admirable work which was reaped on a soil which so recently had been devastated by such a frightful storm" [the Revolution].

ARE THE CONGREGATIONS GUILTY AS CHARGED?

The first charge against the congregations,—that those which had not been authorized were in revolt against French law,—Count de Mun declares cannot be sustained, because "under every form of government the various state departments made formal arrangements with them, at one time with reference to the colonies, at another in connection with charitable undertakings and prison administration." The charge of "mortmain,"—that the orders held vast properties which could not be alienated,—he asserts, falls to the ground, because the total value of the lands and tenements owned by them is less than 435,000,000 francs (\$87,000,000), and this amount, in a country like France, is far from being dangerously large.

"The principle of association, of organized coöperation and collective enterprise, invades, in every country, the fields in which the most varied types of national activity are exercised. Workmen's associations, more particularly, daily increase in number, in strength, and in influence; and by degrees, as and when their right to acquire property is more freely recognized, as must inevitably be the case, the 'mortmain' of the working classes will attain more considerable proportions and will exercise an influence of incalculable magnitude on the economic destiny of nations. How, then, can it be pretended in good faith that the existence of real property

to the value of a few hundred million francs in the hands of a few thousand monks or humble nuns is becoming a public danger? It would be difficult to abuse the public credulity in a more cruel manner, and the bait was rendered all the more alluring and deceptive by the fact that the people were induced to hope that the proposed confiscation and sale of the possessions which were denounced and thus made the object of popular cupidity would be utilized to the common profit,—for that was M. Waldeck-Rousseau's view,—for the establishment of a pension fund for the benefit of the working classes. The very fact that nearly all the real property belonging to the congregations was not of a revenue-producing character, but comprised establishments arranged with a view to special objects, such as the education of children or the care of the sick, and consisted of colleges, hospitals, and orphan asylums, made it perfectly obvious that it was of comparatively little value for selling purposes, and that it would be extremely difficult to find a purchaser."

The religious associations, he says, further, "take no active organized part in politics. If, in fact, some of their members are not devoted and convinced partisans of the republic, the majority respect it as being the established government, and all agree in asking nothing from it except the right to exercise their religion in peace."

REALLY A QUESTION OF EDUCATION.

The real crux of the question, however, is in the matter of education. Count de Mun traces the history of French education from the Revolution to the passage of M. Waldeck-Rousseau's measure for the suppression of the teaching orders, in 1901. He indicts the "Napoleonic tradition" for "anti-religious passion which has dictated every attack on the liberty of Christian education." The active political campaign against religious teaching was, he says, begun in 1886, by Jules Ferry, who proposed in its place a system of education "denuded, not only of all sectarian admixture, but even of the most elementary religious conception,—assuredly an audacious proposition, and one which was well calculated to disturb and terrify all Christian consciences." For years, this writer points out, French Catholics have loyally paid their share of the taxes levied for the support of the rival government schools, while making heroic sacrifices to maintain their own system. They were, therefore, most unjustly treated by the law of 1901, which proscribed their teaching orders and forced their dissolution. Public sentiment in France was against the government, Count de Mun holds, but, in 1902, when M. Waldeck-

Rousseau went before the country for approval of his policy, he was indorsed by a majority of 200,000 votes,—“practically the figure represented by the body of government officials.” M. Combes, who succeeded M. Waldeck-Rousseau, in 1902, represents “the socialistic, and more especially the anti-religious, tendencies” of the new Chamber. Again, declares Count de Mun, the ministry acted contrary to the sentiment of the nation, as shown by the anti-governmental demonstrations in Brittany and elsewhere. The applications for authorization by the fifty-four male and eighty female congregations which had not dissolved voluntarily upon the passage of the law requiring authorization were, “by a trick of administrative procedure” contrary to constitutional provision, submitted, not to both houses, but only to the Chamber of Deputies, and rejected *en bloc*. A single male congregation, the Frères des Écoles Chrétiennes (Brothers of the Christian Schools), and four hundred female congregations, including the well-known Sisters of St. Vincent de Paul, were permitted to survive.

WHAT OF THE FUTURE?

Will the feeling against the Catholic orders because their members make a vow of chastity and obedience to the Pope be extended to all the Catholic clergy who submit to their superiors and are vowed to celibacy? Count de Mun believes that it will. Moreover, he believes that Clémenceau's dictum,—that “the principles and doctrines of the Catholic Church are incompatible with the life and development of contemporary civil society,”—will probably be triumphantly applied by the present French ministry, although, he points out, Belgium has been governed for the past twenty years by Catholic ministers, and, “not only is it impossible to affirm that liberty has suffered thereby, but, on the contrary, it is an indisputable fact that the liberty of the press, of opinions, and of discussion, parliamentary and otherwise, and the right to teach, are more unrestricted in that country than in many others; and in no state are social legislation and active democratic organization more developed.” The Socialists and Free Masons are regarded by Count de Mun as the arch-enemies, not only of the Catholic Church, but of all religious belief. The separation of Church and State, he holds, is, “in the present condition of our [French] political institutions and religious habits, a dangerous chimera.” But the Christian Church will be triumphant in the end.

“While the governing classes, victims of an incomprehensible blindness, strive to tear up the imperishable tree of Christianity, it is putting

forth fresh roots, which are penetrating ever deeper and deeper into the souls of men. Banned from its place in the laws and institutions of our country and in the ranks of officialdom, the Church is daily winning an unexpected place in the life of the nation as the result of the natural spiritual needs of mankind, and of the very fact that it has been persecuted. Now, more than ever, it appears in the light of a moral force, immense and indispensable, whose influence no prudent government can possibly misapprehend. An attempt may be made to combat it, but to ignore it is impossible; sooner or later, they will have to come to terms with it. Whatever the extent, the duration, and the effects of the present crisis may be, that must be the inevitable conclusion.”

OWNERSHIP OF CHURCH PROPERTY IN ITALY.

THE Italian Government, like the French, is busy with ecclesiastical reform. The “Statuto fondamentale del Regno” enacts, in its first article, that “the Catholic, apostolic, and Roman religion is the only religion of the state.” By the royal decree of October 9, 1870, which declared that “Rome and the Roman provinces shall constitute an integral part of the kingdom of Italy,” the Pope, or Roman Pontiff, was acknowledged supreme head of the Church, preserving his former rank and dignity as a sovereign prince. Furthermore, by a bill that became law May 13, 1871, there was guaranteed to his Holiness and his successors forever, besides possession of the Vatican and Lateran palaces and the villa of Castel Gandolfo, a yearly income of 3,225,000 lire, or \$645,000, which allowance (whose arrears would in 1898 amount to over \$18,000,000) still remains unclaimed and unpaid. At present, under the Roman Pontiff, the Catholic episcopal hierarchy consists of forty-nine archbishops and two hundred and twenty bishops, besides the six cardinal bishops. Most of these dioceses have their seminaries for the education of priests, with all the officials and teachers necessary to administer them. The government proposes to diminish the number of bishops, to consolidate the funds of the various dioceses, and to follow the example of the French Government by fixing and paying the salary of these dignitaries. At present every archbishop or bishop is appointed by the Pope, but must be confirmed by the royal placet or exequatur.

CONSOLIDATION NECESSARY.

There are many superfluous expenses attendant on the distribution of ecclesiastical revenues

as at present administered, and Signor Giuseppe Piola has treated the subject of these reforms at some length in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome). He thinks that the centralization of the funds of the Church in one treasury, from which they are to be apportioned out by the authorities of the state, will be highly advantageous to all concerned, by giving the management of ecclesiastical property into the hands of representatives of Catholic citizens, and in affording them the opportunity of increasing the stipends paid to the ministers of the Church.

"The State," he says, "which has not the power to introduce any reform in the Church, will at least be able to obtain such influence over the Catholic people that they will not show themselves hostile to the popular vote, and one important element in the reorganization of ownership in ecclesiastical property will be the gradual diminution in the number of episcopal sees.

"The endowment of the sees which would remain, and the episcopal seminaries which pertain to them, would be increased by additions from the funds of the suppressed sees; and this without any loss to the population, who could be ministered to just as well in view of the modern increased facility of communication. But for such a reform as this the coöperation of the ecclesiastical authorities is indispensable, for it is in their power alone to make suitable modifications in the episcopal jurisdiction of the Church; and these authorities, in spite of the palpable advantages that would accrue to the Church, are likely to throw every obstacle in the way to prevent the faithful from taking any share in political life. Now, in the reorganization which is proposed, in which the ownership of ecclesiastical property is to be removed from the control and jurisdiction of the sacred ministry, the State would be able to exercise control over all contributions to that property, while it would be left to the authorities of the Church to deal with all matters of ecclesiastical jurisdiction."

HOW THE CHURCH WOULD BENEFIT.

But the advantages which the Church would receive from the proposed reorganization would be greater even than that derived by the State.

"The great simplification of administrative work brought about by the State's control of ecclesiastical property would be of immense advantage to the Church through the saving of expenses which so far have been borne by the ecclesiastical authorities in the financial department of their activities. I allude to the annual expense incurred in the administration of the fund of public worship. . . . With regard to

the security of ecclesiastical property in accordance with the proposed reform, it ought to be considered whether that security can be less than it is at present, when all grants to the Church are made year by year amid the excitement of political parties. The eleemosynary form of support which the Church seems to favor so much has not hindered the putting forth of laws of repression, and even allowed the proposal of a plan by which a government of our country formed of a moderate party should alienate all ecclesiastical property by the intervention of a foreign bank. Security of ecclesiastical property is best found in the widest possible separation of the Church from the interference of the State."

THE ECONOMIC FATE OF THE EUROPEAN PEASANT.

"IT is the productive forces of the American States which have destroyed the economic equilibrium of the world. . . . We must bow before the brutal fact. Markets which were once far off are now at our very doors." Étienne Clémentel, the economist (who writes these words in the *Revue Bleue*, Paris), says there is a hard, even a tragic, future before the European peasant, particularly the peasant of France.

"Soon the markets of the nations will lose their independence and their autonomy. They will be forced to recognize the suzerainty of the world market, which will regulate prices. Speculation has become more dangerous than ever, since it is now an international act. . . . Crises are now thrown upon crises, and this will mean the ruin of the agriculture in Europe. All the agricultural countries of the Old World are in peril; France especially so. . . . The geographical situation of France makes her the first point of attack by the American peril. Even now is the moment of our ruin as a wine-producing country. The phylloxera and the floods are bringing about the destruction of our vines, and these, with cyclones, have now all but annihilated our agricultural preëminence."

During the past decade, this writer declares, the value of France's agricultural production has fallen off more than eight hundred million francs. Yet the French peasant, he insists, is bending every energy to resist the competition of American agriculture, and the government of the republic is coming to his aid with legislation providing bounties and arranging for properly adjusted customs duties.

M. Clémentel has but little faith in the bounty idea, and admits that the United States is in a position to injure France considerably by re-

taliatory tariffs. The customs duties, he says, "cannot preserve us from the influx of the products of Anglo-Saxon America or of the young Latin-American states, which are developing so rapidly, nor yet against imports from the far Orient." Still, he believes, tariffs are necessary, but insists that they benefit the large proprietors, in whose hands are to be found the capital, the agricultural science, and the technical skill, rather than the poor peasants. The government could aid still more by wise financial legislation, by proper agricultural instruction, and by a system of farmers' banks. This writer also favors government recognition of and aid to the organizations for insurance against the loss of cattle, which have already been established for some years in certain departments of the republic. This, he admits, leads to socialism,—a state of society which he welcomes as more altruistic and as producing more happiness than any other.

THE FUTURE OF GERMANY.

THE ambitious task of forecasting the futures of the European nations has been assumed by Dr. Emil Reich, who discourses in the April *Fortnightly* on the prospects of Germany. He says that the greatest force now working for Germany's future welfare is her intellectuality.

"The systematic thoroughness with which everything is carried out in the world of intellect is almost inconceivable. When any one has been compelled, for years, to make use of German books, he will begin to realize the immense labor which has been done by Germans in the organization of knowledge. From his earliest years, the German youth, whatever degree of learning he may eventually be meant to attain, is at any rate taught to learn systematically. He is never permitted to specialize in any subject until he has a complete grasp of generalities, in order that he may have in his mind at least a sense of the proportion of what he has to learn."

INTELLECT ON THE SEA.

Germany carries this quality into her military and naval preparations.

"Every month witnesses the publication of some new book on naval tactics, naval construction, or naval history, and no pains are being spared in order that Germans may make the most minute and searching study of all that appertains to an exhaustive and practical knowledge of everything that is requisite to a first-class navy. The drift of all this busy, unflagging preparation can hardly be doubtful. For

fifty years there was the same hum of an army making ready, the same keen attention to military affairs, the same drilling of soldiers and training of officers, before Germany hurled herself irresistibly upon France, full of sanguine confidence in her success. In the same manner, there can be no doubt that Germany is arming herself with patient, calculating, and laborious perseverance for the day when she shall at last feel ready to throw down the gauntlet of defiance in the face of England."

THE ELBE-TRIESTE CANAL.

He regards a canal between the Elbe and Trieste as the greatest of Germany's ambitions. But it is a mistake to suppose that Austria has lost all resisting power. Germany's efforts to Teutonize Alsace-Lorraine, says Dr. Reich, have been a failure. Her ambitions now turn toward Holland, but she has nothing to offer the Dutch worth having, except pecuniary compensation.

THE CURSE OF THE BUREAUCRAT.

Of Germany's defects, Dr. Reich says:

"It is difficult to believe, judging from the past, that the Germans will ever be able to mature that ideal development of both man and woman which alone can be considered as the palm and prize of the highest form of civilization. The German woman, in spite of many a great national quality, has so far not given proof or hopes justifying us in the assumption that she will in her proper sphere create the same charm of graceful idealism that so many German intellectual men have succeeded in creating in the sphere of intellectual idealism. More serious still is the deficiency of the Germans in that they have suffered their whole political life to be officialized, and thus Byzantinized.

"Even within the last thirty years, they have, outside of Bismarck, produced not a single great political personality. We see a number of hard, steady, and honest workers, but not a single great personality. The over-bureaucratization of the whole of political life in Germany leaves, as a rule, little elbow-room for the growth of free, untrammelled, and elastic forces. Rome owed her greatness chiefly, as does England in our own time, to the great number of men who, unfettered by any bureaucratic routine, devoted all their strength to the great political and social problems of their country. Germany, therefore, runs the great danger of quickening but little the onward march of women toward the ideal, and of paralyzing the resources of her men by subjecting them to an excessive bureaucratism."

A SHARP EUROPEAN CRITICISM OF AMERICA.

DR. EMIL REICH, the Hungarian writer on political and economic subjects, is not one of those European observers who find it easy to recognize the great and admirable points in American character and civilization. He sees many unlovely traits in us, and a rather threatening future before us. In the first place, it has been his experience, as he outlines his judgment in the *National Review*, that we are too confident of our national success. "We have had innumerable opportunities of hearing public speakers in America cast doubts upon the very existence of God and of Providence, question the historic nature or veracity of the whole fabric of Christianity, but never has it been our fortune to catch the slightest whisper of doubt, the slightest want of faith in the chief god of America, in the unbounded belief in the future of America."

NOT GREATLY FAVORED BY NATURE.

The United States, he holds, has not been so highly favored by Providence as we Americans are wont to believe.

"Peschel and many other eminent geographers have long ago proved that the northern American continent, as a continent, is, physiographically speaking, very much inferior to Europe. A number of the most valuable cereals, as well as other edible plants, the vine, etc., will either not grow there at all or grow in very restricted quantities. The mountains and rivers cannot compare, either in number or size, with their respective counterparts in Europe. [It is hard to let this go without enlightening him.] Geo-politically, it is certain that America is placed in both a new and an inferior position. . . . The geo-political necessity of fighting for every rood of land during centuries has never existed in America. Territories such as in Europe would have taken untold years to conquer and annex were acquired by the Union in a few months. To sum up, the Union is neighborless; no enemy threatens it in the north, no enemy threatens it in the east, none in the west, and there is no menace of importance in the south. This cardinal circumstance differentiates American history completely from European history."

All the good we have in us has come from the foreigners in our midst. "The Americans, so far as the majority is concerned, are still what in every European country would be considered foreigners. Leaving out the negroes, the mass of the white men in America are unable to trace their family beyond the grandfather as coming from American stock."

FAILURE OF THE AMERICAN WOMAN.

The American woman, to this observer, is a failure in all that makes womanhood a real success. Besides the "breakdown of American maternity," there are other points in the woman question in this country which call for much self-examination.

"The American woman, especially in the course of the last fifty years, has assumed an outward tone and an internal attitude diametrically opposed to what it is customary to esteem feminine in Europe. The old-world *naïveté* of Europe appears to her quite out of date,—the retiring dignity, the restraint, the self-effacement, of the European woman is repugnant to her. Her ambition is to win the recognition of her bright intelligence; she likes to pass for a person of energetic nerve, ready, at a moment's notice, for action of every description. The incessant craving for movement has taken hold of her even more strongly than it has taken hold of the American man. She cannot stand being stationary. We have often heard, in America, the singular remark that the Americans are attached to family life. The incredible host of boarding-houses with which the land is eaten up would seem but a poor proof of that statement. It must, indeed, be feared that this cultivation of a fierce energy is beyond the rôle of woman, and bids fair to culminate, finally, in her absolute physical break-down. It also misses its mark, for nothing is shown more clearly by statistics than that the number of distinguished women workers in America in the domains of art, letters, and science is ludicrously small compared with the number of brilliant women authors and women painters of Europe. We cannot fail to note the vast disproportion between the all but frantic passion with which the humanities and arts are cultivated in America and the number of successes produced. Even among the Americans themselves, the number of their really great women is confessed to be exceedingly restricted. They have not yet had their Sophie Germain, their George Eliot, their Georges Sand, their Madame de Staël."

DEFECTS OF THE AMERICAN MAN.

The American man, we are told, also differs radically from the European man. He has energy, push, brightness, the deepest respect for knowledge, and a "magnificent passion for ordered system." But he is "lacking in natural completeness. . . . His development is far too rapid. He springs into manhood far too quickly, and jumps out of it again with too great rapidity.

This same rapidity characterizes all his doings. His patience, even, is rapid. . . . To summarize, he lacks that great regulator of our inner steadiness, a well-balanced emotional life; and this renders him incapable of applying all his heart or all his intellect to any one thing for any considerable time."

OUR STAKE IN THE FAR EAST.

The great drama now being enacted in the far East is full of portents for the future of America. We are likely to become embroiled with England, Dr. Reich believes, which would be opposed to us in both the Atlantic and the Pacific.

"The same struggles which England had to sustain against Holland, France, and Spain. America will have to sustain upon a far grander scale. When Panama becomes the center about which the whole world gravitates, America, we may be convinced, will not be left to enjoy the possession of the Isthmus in peace and to reap therefrom advantages at the cost of all the other European powers. If she should come into contact with the whole of Europe—into hostile contact—the result would hardly be dubious. We have at all times insisted upon the futility of all calculations in history based upon numbers to the disregard of quality, but what would be the result for America of a struggle in which she would have to face the confederate quality and four hundred million inhabitants of Europe? It is only after a secular war against Europe, the course of which would profoundly modify the whole American character, that America could hope to win her independence from European dictation."

JUST A FEW GOOD POINTS.

Despite her drawbacks, however, America "has solved ideals, moral and social, which European nations have in vain endeavored to attain. . . . In Europe, it is commonly supposed that all the five senses of the American are concentrated to form a sixth sense—the sense of dollar-grabbing. Nothing could be further from the truth. Years of residence in America have convinced us of the fact that, while America is no doubt the country where most money is earned, it is probably the country where least value is really attached to money. Wealth raises up no spiked railings of social distinction, and generosity is, perhaps, more general than in any other country of the world. Money is easily acquired, and in the acquisition of money alone does American talent find the outlet which it cannot find in artistic and literary channels. There is a general atmosphere of urbanity and hospitality pervading the whole country which is delightful to

the stranger fresh-landed from Europe; this atmosphere is far more real and far more genuine than anything of the kind to be found in the old world."

OUR THREATENING FUTURE.

Dr. Reich has far more misgivings as to the future of America than as to that of Europe.

"The path of America is strewn with stumbling-blocks which it will require her utmost ingenuity to circumvent or to surmount. . . . The Monroe Doctrine acts for America the part played for China by the Great Wall,—it isolates and stagnates her. Should that wall be removed, should the Americans give up the Monroe Doctrine, should they enter on secular conflicts with Europe, then, and then alone, will they be able, in case of success, to aggrandize themselves to a power of the first rank, or eventually of unique greatness. It is Salamis and Plataea that make nations intellectual, heroic, really great. When the Greeks began establishing vast public libraries at Alexandria and elsewhere, they had long fallen from their ancient grandeur."

THE CONTRACT SYSTEM IN MUNICIPAL PUBLIC WORKS.

SHALL the public works of our cities be let to the lowest responsible bidder, or shall the city itself buy the materials and hire the labor directly? The former has always been the prevailing practice in this country, but Mayor James M. Head, of Nashville, makes a strong presentation in the April *Arena* (Boston) of the case for direct municipal construction. Mayor Head finds an insuperable objection to the contract system in the fact that in most of the States the law requires that contracts shall be let to "the lowest responsible bidder," who is defined simply as one who can give bonds for the faithful performance of his contract. Such bonds, it is well known, are wholly inadequate to secure prompt or satisfactory fulfillment of contracts.

Mayor Head classifies contractors who bid on public works into three distinct groups.

THREE CLASSES OF CONTRACTORS.

"The first and, unfortunately, the most limited class, is the 'honest contractor' who bids upon public work just as he does upon work to be let by the private individual, trusting upon his well-known and well-earned reputation for honesty, integrity, and promptness to enable him to secure a reasonable amount of work at a fairly remunerative profit, after allowing for the usual and unknown contingencies which must

necessarily enter into every class of contract work, no matter how thoroughly the contracts may have been studied and estimates made.

"The second class may be designated as the 'adventurer,' or irresponsible bidder, who bids largely at haphazard, but always low enough to secure the business, trusting to good fortune and the inattention of city officials to let him get through with the contract in some form, and, if loss must come, fully conscious of the fact that some one other than himself—either the public or his bondsman—will be the sufferer.

"And the third class is known as the 'boddler,' who secures his contracts through 'political pull' and inside information as to how the specifications will be construed, and inspections made when the contract comes to be executed, and whose bid is always low enough to take the contract from the 'honest contractor,' and at the same time provide for city officials and their clerks, through whom valuable information is supposed to leak.

NO CHANCE FOR THE HONEST CONTRACTOR.

"With only these three classes of bidders, how is it possible for the city to obtain value received for the work let under the contract system where the contract must be awarded to 'the lowest responsible bidder?'

"And how many public officials can you find who are willing to bear the storm of newspaper criticism and trumped-up public indignation in order to follow his own judgment and award the contract to a higher bidder, even if he has the legal right to do so?

"The result is that the public work under 'the lowest bidder' rule must be let either to the 'adventurer' or the 'crook,' while 'the taxpayer pays the freight.'

"To such an extent has this gone, and so well understood is it that the honest contractor has little or no chance when it comes to bidding upon public work, that a man or firm which is known to be engaged in the business of securing public contracts soon comes to be looked upon as little short of a criminal, and his methods of doing business are regarded with suspicion by all classes of business men.

"The contract system has done more to corrupt public officials and lower the standard of official integrity than any other one cause, save the granting of franchises to quasi-public corporations, which leads all other inducements to official crookedness."

Lack of confidence between the public and the officials often forces responsible officials to do what their better judgment fails to approve in the matter of letting contracts.

THE CITY AS ITS OWN CONTRACTOR.

If the contract system is to be retained at all, Mayor Head maintains that the rule requiring the acceptance of the "lowest bidder" should be abolished, and that public officials should be placed upon their honor and held accountable for results. As an alternative, however, the municipality itself may be required to do all the work of a public character, keeping a responsible head, or superintendent, for each department, who shall hold office on good behavior. This is the plan that he advocates in his article, citing by way of a partial demonstration of its merits the experience of Nashville in certain departments of public work.

Of the figures showing the economies effected by substituting direct municipal operation for the contract system, perhaps the most convincing are those taken from the reports of the Nashville street-sprinkling department. In 1893, this work was done under contract at a cost of \$24,269.90 for one hundred and thirty sprinkling miles. In 1896, the city undertook the work itself, and purchased equipment for the purpose. Since that time, the cost has steadily decreased, even including the expense of equipment, while the area sprinkled has been enlarged. Following is Mayor Head's summary of the situation:

STREET-SPRINKLING UNDER THE TWO SYSTEMS.

"At different times, the amount of territory sprinkled has been increased from 130 miles in 1893, to 197½ miles in 1903, while for the year 1893 it cost \$24,269.90, and for the year 1902, \$14,098.78, and the city owns wagons and mules and harness, all of which have been paid for out of the expenses of the department since the city took charge. The greatest amount expended in any one year by the city was the first year that the city undertook the work, which was \$18,745.12, or \$5,524.78 less than the cost the first year under the contract system.

"The average annual cost to the city for sprinkling 130 miles of street under the contract system for three years was \$16,200.06, while the average annual cost under the present plan for seven years has been \$12,900.38, out of which the city has paid for and now owns its entire sprinkling equipment necessary for the operation of this department.

"During the years 1893, 1894, 1895, and 1896, when the contract system was in force, the wages paid day laborers was \$1 per day; while from 1897 to 1902, inclusive, the time covered by municipal work in this department, the rate paid was \$1.25 per day."

DRAWING CARTOONS FOR "PUNCH."

AT last the vulgar public has been initiated into some of the mysteries of what is still known in England as "our great humorous journal." After a careful examination of the



SKETCH OF THE WRESTLER.

methods employed by the modern *Punch* artists in producing their wares, the writer of an article in *Cassell's Magazine* for April describes those methods in detail. From his account, it appears that all the *Punch* masterpieces are produced between the famous staff dinner on Wednesday night and the following Saturday. Mr. Linley Sambourne, who has succeeded Sir John Tenniel as the premier *Punch* cartoonist, is described as working

"with one eye on a watch suspended above his drawing-board," and yet the amount of preparation that he gives to all his work banishes every suggestion of haste in the finished product. How is such finish secured in so short a time?

We are told, in the first place, that the artist makes a point of keeping himself fully equipped in all the essentials of his work. He has a collection of thousands of photographs, all classified and indexed. The subjects of these photographs include "beasts, birds, and insects from the 'Zoo,' costumes of all nations and orders of men and women, nude and draped figures, locomotives and vehicles, ships, shop-windows, etc., the collection, of course, being periodically revised and kept up to date."

When the idea came to Mr. Sambourne of representing Gladstone as Wellington, he knew at once where to obtain the loan of the Iron Duke's own raiment. When he desired to introduce certain army uniforms into a cartoon, Mr. Sambourne was able to obtain the loan, through the war office, of several soldiers of the regiments in question.

SKETCH FROM MODEL.
DRAPERIES ON BEAR,
CAP, ETC.

The cartoonist's mode of procedure is outlined as follows:

"The idea which he has brought away with him from the *Punch* dinner the night before is first expressed in a rough pencil scribble. This is followed by a corrected outline, which is traced on to the drawing-board. This is corrected as to details from all the available data he has regarding costumes, uniforms, etc.,—studies and photographs; and the background, whatever it may be, is similarly dealt with. The artist then makes a complete outline in ink of everything before any shading is put in."

Nothing, not even the minutest detail, is ever added after the drawing has been shaded. This is because the artist regards the composition and the story which is to be told by details as of much more importance than the finish of the picture, when time is in-



SKETCH OF BEAR.

"WILL THEY CLOSE?"

(The cartoon by Mr. Linley Sambourne.)

variably all too short. The final picture being drawn in ink, the artist is able to rely on the different thickness or strength of line for the effect of distance and foreground.

As has been indicated, Mr. Sambourne never draws direct from models, because he considers that this course leads to a loss of ideality. And ideality, in his opinion, is of the first importance in a cartoon which requires emphasis and exaggeration of some parts if its meaning is to be obvious at a glance.

"In illustration of the method which he had thus explained to me, Mr. Linley Sambourne kindly placed in my hands the material from which he had made his cartoon of the current week—the Russian Bear in an attitude of offense toward the Japanese wrestler, the subject, of course, being the then threatened war between Russia and Japan over the affairs of Korea, represented by a third figure in the picture costume of that country. 'Will They Close?' was the title of the cartoon, which appeared on December 2 last. There was the first, the rough pencil, sketch of the composition, selected after trying it in various positions. Then there were several studies in pencil of the details,—three of the Jap, in different preliminary attitudes of the wrestler, two of the bear, and one of the Korean onlooker; and, lastly, a sketch of typical Japanese articles for the foreground."

Other men on the *Punch* staff have methods radically different from those of the chief cartoonist, but nearly all, in the words of this writer, "are based on the art which conceals art."

A BIT OF THE ORIENT IN LONDON.

THAT part of East London which corresponds in many of its social features to New York's great East Side is described in an article contributed to the April *Strand* by Mr. G. R. Sims. The portion of "Alien Land" comprehended in Mr. Sims' description is almost exclusively inhabited by Jews. From Commercial Street and Morgan Street, he comes suddenly upon "a page of the old Orient bound up in the book of modern Western life."

"Here is a building which is fitly labeled 'The Oriental Bazaar.' You are in London, but you might be in Cairo or Mogador. The bazaar, or 'market,' is reached from the street by deep flights of steps. It is open to the sky, and beyond it and above it is a street of houses, and a roadway along which flit, now and again, Eastern women with gay-colored shawls over their heads.

"The 'shops' of the market are built in little recesses. In these sit silent Oriental figures—the dealers. Most of the day's business is over.

There are a few loiterers, and the men and women who keep the little shops sit silent and emotionless as the Arabs among their unsold wares."

He bears witness to the decent and orderly behavior of the Jewish immigrant, and contrasts it forcibly with what goes on in the adjoining purlieus of English vice and crime.

THE BASIS OF LIFE.

UNDER the title "Alter und Tod," Dr. A. Bühler, of the Anatomical Institute of Zurich, discusses the nature of life, and the cause of old age and death, in the *Biologisches Centralblatt* (Leipsic). The measure of the active energy of a living body, he asserts, is determined by its power of changing matter from one form to another; and this change of condition, in the main, is a chemical process.

Potential energy stored up through chemical affinity is given up in the change of matter when new chemical combinations are formed, and this may be considered as the only source of the energy of an organism. Through the activity of the cells composing the different systems of organs of the body, this energy is changed from potential to some form of kinetic energy, such as heat, motion, etc., or in changed chemical form is again stored up as potential energy in the material composing the body.

HOW WE GROW OLD.

From a knowledge of the process of growing old in a single system of the organs of the body, or of a single system of cells, comes an explanation for the growing old of the whole organism. A growing organism takes up more nourishment in comparison to its own weight than an adult, and the building up and tearing down of material is more rapid; but these processes of growth depend upon the innate nature of the organism, which fits it for the greater development of energy, and it is not the greater amount of nourishment consumed that makes it grow.

The difference in the activities of old and young cells is not due to changes in chemical media external to them, but to changes in the cells themselves, which can only be brought about by the dying out of the vital processes: and the longer the exchange of material has lasted, the more energy the living protoplasm has taken up and transformed, the more it loses its power to continue the process. For example, metallic potassium will unite most violently with a definite amount of water, freeing, as it unites, great energy of heat, light, and motion. Generation of these forms of energy ends when the

chemical changes cease, and no further addition of water will renew the process.

Living matter also assimilates chemical substances in the process of metabolism, forming loose chemical compounds which change and form other combinations, at the same time releasing the energy used in the various manifestations of life. The assimilation of new material, and the resultant transformation of the energy acquired in this way, can take place only so long as chemical differences exist between the living matter and its food material. If these differences are removed through the activities of life-processes, if all the chemical affinities are satisfied, chemical equilibrium is established, no new combinations are possible, and the result is cessation of all processes or death.

CHEMICAL TRANSFORMATION AND LIFE.

The chemical transformation of matter plays an important rôle in the life of the whole body. Assimilation is possible only so long as there are chemical affinities to be satisfied, or, in other words, as there are compensable electro-chemical differences between the living protoplasm and the non-living matter in the blood. The life-process, as such, works constantly toward the equalization of these differences, and when this is effected, no more assimilation is possible; growth, motion, heat, building up and tearing down of complex chemical bodies, terminate, as well as all the appearances by which life is manifested. Death is the final aim and fulfillment of life.

In life, the processes of chemical combination are not rapid, as in the union of metallic potassium with water, and changes brought about by the successive union and separation of new material and protoplasm do not produce a noticeable change in the appearance of the cell. As might be expected, the cells which have the shortest life are those whose protoplasm is most highly differentiated along certain lines,—that is, the red corpuscles of the blood. These cells can neither grow nor form new cells, and also lack the power to unite chemically with anything except oxygen.

The manifold forms of regeneration harmonize with the view that the continuance of life depends on the constant formation of new combinations by bodies in a state of unstable chemical equilibrium. Frequently, renewed or an entirely different kind of growth is brought about through the influence of new cell material capable of forming new chemical combinations. For example, a slip from a vine, when planted, will reach to the stimulus of its new environment by regenerating all the organs, such as roots, etc.,

which it lacks. Or, in the case of galls formed on plants, the insertion of an insect's egg in the stem or leaf or root of a plant will cause it to develop in a way entirely different from the usual growth of that part.

AERONAUTIC SPIDERS.

THERE is an interesting parallel between the efforts of man to navigate the air and those made by certain species of the spider family; for the spider, it should be remembered, has no more of the natural power of flight than has man himself. The methods employed by these little creatures to accomplish their aerial journeys form the subject of an instructive article by Dr. Henry C. McCook in the May number of *Harper's*.

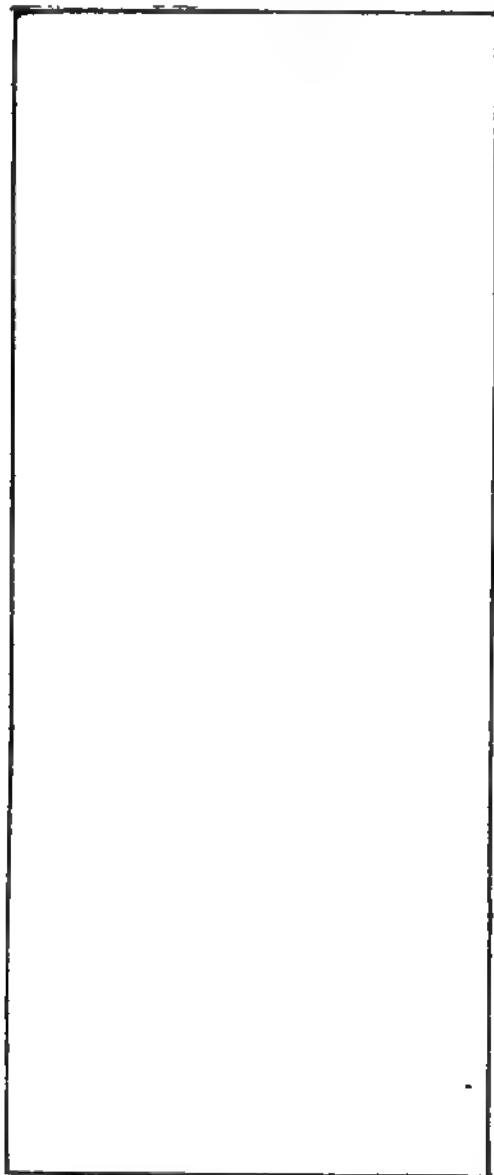
According to this writer, the seasons when spider ballooning most prevails are spring or early summer, and the autumn, after the young have been hatched. The month most favored is October. Observing with a pocket lens the silken filaments seen floating on a warm October day from fence-posts and hedges and streaming like pennants from tall weeds, one learns that these are nothing less than the ropes and netting of ballooning spiders. The spider's attitude preceding flight is thus described by Dr. McCook:

"It faces the direction of the wind. The abdomen is elevated about forty-five degrees, and at the same time the eight legs, four on either side, are straightened out, and the body thus raised above the surface. At the apex of the abdomen and beneath it are the spinnerets, covered with minute spinning-spools, through which jets of liquid silk are forced from a multitude of glands within the body. These harden at contact with the air, and are held apart or combined at the spider's will, by closing or outspreading the spinning mammals. Keep the lens directed upon the spinnerets of your little adventurer. A ray of several threads is issuing, which, caught by the breeze, are drawn out and upward, six, ten, even twenty or more, feet. Meanwhile, the legs incline toward the breeze and the joints stiffen. The foremost pair sink almost to the level of the post. All the legs and the whole attitude show the muscular strain of an animal resisting an uplifting force.

"Suddenly and simultaneously, the eight claws are unloosened, and the spider mounts with a sharp bound into the air, and floats above the meadow at a rate more or less rapid, according to the velocity of the wind. The threads have been drawn out so far that their buoyancy has overcome the specific gravity of the balloonist, and thus she is able to keep afloat.

THE SPIDER'S FLIGHT.

"What is her manner of flight? It may be a long time before the observer shall find examples that give a satisfactory answer. Some are caught up into the heavens with so sharp a rapture that they are out of sight at once. Others scud along under so swift a wind that they cannot be followed. But fortune favors patience. Here at last is one that is off before a light



BALLOONING SPIDERS IN THE ACT OF FLIGHT.

(The lower figure shows attitude immediately after vaulting. The upper figure shows manner of floating after adjusting the foot-basket.)

breeze and is hugging the ground at about the height of a man's face

"As the spiderling vaults upward, by a swift motion the body is turned back downward, the ray of floating threads is separated from the spinnerets and grasped by the feet, which also by deft and rapid movements weave a tiny cradle, or net of delicate lines, to which the claws cling. At the same moment, a second silken filament is ejected and floats out behind, leaving the body of the little voyager balanced on its meshy basket between that and the first filament, which now streams up from the front. Thus, our *aéronaut's* balloon is complete, and she sits or hangs in the middle of it, drifting whither the wind may carry her.

HOW THE BALLOON DESCENDS.

"She is not wholly at the mercy of the breeze, however, for she has an ingenious mode of bringing herself to earth. When the human *aéronaut* wishes to descend, he contracts his balloon's surface and lessens its buoyancy by letting out its gas. The spider acts upon the same principle, by drawing in the filaments that buoy her up and give sailage surface to the wind. Working hand-over-hand, as one may say, she pulls down the long threads, which, as they are taken in, she rolls up into a flossy white ball above her jaws.

"As the floatage shortens, the *aërial* vessel loses its buoyancy, and at last the spider sinks by her own weight to the field. Thereupon she throws out a silken rope, after the manner of *aéronauts*, which anchors to the foliage, and the young voyager abandons her 'basket' and begins life in her new-found site. This voluntary descent seems to be a rather exceptional experience. For the most part, the balloon is stopped by striking against some elevated object."

THE MALARIAL MOSQUITO IN EGYPT.

THE mosquito's agency in disseminating malaria is an American discovery, but some of the most successful attempts to rid towns of the pest have been reported from distant parts of the globe.

The Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine is reported, in the *Journal of the African Society*, as having attained a remarkable success in the extirpation of malaria in Egypt. Ismailia, intended by the late De Lesseps to be a kind of French capital of Egypt, had been beautifully laid out, but had obtained a very bad reputation for malarial fever. In a population of 9,000, there were formerly 2,000 malarial cases every year. Professor Ross went there in 1902, armed with the discovery that the mosquito was the dissemina-

tor of the malarial microbe. He traced out and destroyed the breeding-places of the mosquitoes. He organized two brigades—the Petroleum and the Drainage brigades. At a cost of £4,400 (\$22,000), and an annual outlay of \$700 (\$3,500), he and the authorities had reduced the mosquito nuisance. "There were no more mosquitoes in Ismailia than in Paris." The number of malarial cases had been reduced from 2,000 to 200 a year, and these latter were merely recurrences. The town was expected to be, in two years more, the sanatorium and watering-place for Cairo. Professor Ross claimed that Ismailia had proved—first, that it was possible to rid a town of mosquitoes; second, that it was equally possible to eradicate malaria. The writer insists that the sanitation of Ismailia should be copied all over the tropical and sub-tropical world. He said: "Towns in these regions ought to be fined heavily if a mosquito can be captured within their boundaries." Were the mosquito exterminated, malarial fever would cease to be transmitted from man to man, "and the tropical world would be almost as much open to settlement by Europeans as by black and yellow races." The writer goes on to advance the suggestion that an international congress should be called to consider the practical means for the abolition of insects. Insects, he says, as a class, are a source of enormous harm to humanity and other vertebrates. "With the single exception of the bee, there is probably not one species of insect which is not a source of annoyance, disgust, or danger to human life." The idea of the human family applying to its entire terrestrial dwelling-place the same policy of insecticide which every cleanly housewife follows in her own home is rather fitted to startle and to allure the imagination.

WHY IS THE SKY BLUE?

A CAREFUL study of this question in popular style is contributed to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* by its scientific writer, M. Dastre. He explains the various theories to account for the blue of the sky. The principal theory is probably that of Lord Rayleigh, which attributes the diffused blueness of the sky to the solid or liquid particles of the atmosphere. But this view is not completely satisfactory, because how can these strange objects, which are constantly changing, explain the permanent phenomenon of blueness? Another category of particles must therefore be sought for, which should be inherent in the constitution of the atmosphere, and Lord Rayleigh can find such particles only in the air itself. He admits, therefore, with Brewster, that the rays of the sun are diffused through

the gaseous particles, as we often see them diffused through a cloud of dust or through drops of water. An eminent French physicist, M. Sagnac, has adopted the same principle, but he has modified the application of it in order to avoid one serious difficulty in Lord Rayleigh's system. He charges Lord Rayleigh with the mistake of supposing that the production of blueness in the whole of the atmosphere is universal and uniform. If that were so, then it would follow that the intensity of blueness would diminish at high altitudes in proportion to the diminution of the pressure of the atmosphere. But that, as we know from experiments, is not the case. M. Sagnac, therefore, substitutes for the too simple theory of an equal diffusion for each molecule the hypothesis of a diffusion in proportion to the distances of the molecules from one another. In other words, the blueness of the sky is no longer to be regarded as diffused equally all over, and the sky is no longer to be confounded with the atmosphere. It is in the higher levels of the atmosphere that the diffusion of blueness is dominant; and so, curiously enough, the old illusion of the azure vault, which plays so great a part in the mythology of the childhood of the world, is rehabilitated by modern science.

THE SPANIARD IN MEXICO.

A MONEY-MAKING, wonderfully frugal race are the Spaniards in Mexico, said the late Matias Romero. *Modern Mexico* quotes his opinion, as follows:

"In Mexico, the energy of the Spaniard is remarkable. He is forceful of word and phrase, energetic in his movements, immensely vital, tremendously persistent, and wonderfully enduring. After thirty years behind a counter selling groceries, he retires, a man of fortune; not always large, but sufficient, and is still a man of force and ready for undertakings demanding good brain-power and courage. They come over mere lads, from ten to fifteen, toil and moil, feed frugally and sleep hardly, and they become millionaires, bank directors, great mill-owners, farmers on a grand scale, hot-country planters, and monopolists,—for the Spaniard is born with the 'trust' idea,—while his sons are too often dudes and spendthrifts. The thrifty Spaniard toils and saves, and his ambition is to marry a rich girl, frequently the daughter of a Mexican landowner, and so he lays the foundation for permanent wealth. . . . There is one check to the growth of Spanish influence in Mexico, and that is the climate. All Europeans, no matter what their nationality, become physically modified by resi-

dence in the new world, and nowhere is the effect of climate more noticeable than in the tropics. The children of the Spanish residents are less energetic than the parents, and the third generation are altogether Creoles."

THE THEATER OF GABRIEL D'ANNUNZIO.

AMERICANS are accustomed to consider d'Annunzio only as a novelist and poet, but Mme. Duse, in her recent tour throughout Europe and the two Americas, presented the Italian author as a dramatist of unexpected power. Already, says Jean Dornis, in a review in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, the following plays of Signor d'Annunzio have been presented in Paris: "The Dream of a Spring Morning" and "The Dream of an Autumn Twilight" (1897), "The Dead City" (1898), "La Gioconda" and "Glory" (1899), "Francesca da Rimini" (1901), and "The Daughter of Jorio," in which last Sarah Bernhardt has been starring.

It was after the success of his now famous book, "The Triumph of Death," and his later romance, "The Virgin of the Rocks," that the poet turned to the stage, making his *début* with "The Dream of a Spring Morning," a piece which the famous critic, Sarcey, declared would be a brilliant success from its first inception. This play, according to M. Dornis' analysis, "presents subjects which contain all the elements of emotion which are called dramatic." He continues: "Those who in their hearts reserve for Shakespeare only gratitude that he has given life to such figures of tenderness and poetry as those he has named Juliet, Romeo, Titania, and Ophelia will surely be deeply moved by 'The Dream of a Spring Morning.'" Briefly, the argument of this play is much the same as that of "Romeo and Juliet." A passionate Juliet has received in her room a Romeo. . . . Surprised in each other's arms, the lovers have not time to escape by the balcony. He is stabbed. The Juliet of d'Annunzio loses her reason. In her madness, she remains faithful to the memory of her lover. In vain her friends and relatives, her sister, and the brother of her lover's slayer try to console her by making her believe that the dead is not dead. She will not be deceived; she persists in her madness."

ITALIAN LYRIC POETRY.

The critic prefaces his comments on this play with this characterization of Italian poetry: "It is in lyric poetry that the Italian temperament reveals itself with most facility, richness, and brilliancy. All the historical conditions of Italian life which during the centuries have

been mingled so closely with the passions of politics, religion, and love have contributed to develop a tendency which was natural in the race. The Italian is spontaneously a lyric poet, as he is a musician and a singer. It is the happy country where the first-comer finds the words of genius to express the throbbings of his heart."

Of the actual construction of this play, the critic says: "The intentions of the author are really betrayed in his execution. The most solid figure of the tragedy, the one who alone really lives in actual life, . . . is the dancer, the blind *Malatestino*. . . . Signor d'Annunzio has displayed all the riches of his seductive power. He has taken hold of you completely, with a sentiment of rare delicacy. . . . But this modern poetry has not succeeded in effacing the impression that a passage of Dante leaves on the memory of all who have read him." Why? "Because we are in the theater, and it is necessary to shift the scenery to put before our eyes the actors of flesh and bone who play on the stage." Perhaps, he concludes, d'Annunzio's efforts may be summed up in the definition of Victor Hugo: "Lyrical genius, this is to be one's self; dramatic genius, this is to be others."

THE LABOR ARBITRATION LAW IN NEW SOUTH WALES.

AUSTRALASIA always claims a respectful hearing in questions of labor legislation, and it is significant, in this connection, to note the judgment of the Hon. J. H. Carruthers, member of the Australian Parliament, on the working of the new labor arbitration law of the Commonwealth in New South Wales. He says, in the *Review of Reviews for Australasia*:

"There has been much dust raised in settling the terms of employment in issue or dispute in many industries, and one must not be blinded by it to the good that has resulted in many cases. There have been twenty-eight industrial agreements amicably made and filed in court between that many unions of employers and unions of employees, and one hundred and ninety-two decisions have been given by the court, many of them of high importance and wide-reaching effect. In many cases the decisions have settled old standing grievances, and removed causes of industrial strife and discontent, and although feeling has run high, still, after a time, matters have settled down to a peaceful course. . . . That there is much anxiety and much loss of confidence in business enterprise by reason of the unknown element of arbitration, with its delays and cost, none can deny. So far as the public is involved,—that great

body of onlookers which in the end has to foot the bill and pay all the losses,—it has hardly yet realized the position. It does not like the lopsided nature of the act revealed by the Teralba colliery affair; it has no sympathy with the political meddling and interference displayed in the shearers' rival unions, and perhaps at this juncture it may be making up its mind for a period of disfavor to compulsory arbitration; but there can be no room for doubt on this point, that the two years of operation of the law in the State of New South Wales has not inflicted, nor is likely to inflict, upon the community anything like the immense loss sustained by the maritime and shearers' strikes of 1891. If we had no industrial disputes, we should have no strikes, and there would be then no need of compulsory arbitration. It is only a question of comparison,—which is the lesser evil, strikes or arbitration? And while the case for arbitration under the state law of New South Wales may be weak, still, the case for the old barbaric method of strikes has been convincingly demonstrated as indefensible."

IS GENIUS PRECOCIOUS?

BOTH numbers of *La Revue* for March are largely taken up with interesting letters from well-known men, mostly French, on the precocity of genius,—whether remarkable men have also been remarkable children, and whether the abundant promises of early life usually end in fulfillment or disappointment. The answers given by the sixty-four eminent men and one eminent woman (the Duchesse d'Uzès) selected by the editor of *La Revue* are by no means unanimous. They are, however, fairly well agreed that musical and artistic genius shows itself at an early, usually a very early, age. Many eminent men, however, in other ranks of life have not been at all remarkable children,—at least, if one may judge by their own confession. Mathematical ability, also, usually shows itself early. M. Berthelot, secretary of the French Academy of Sciences, while admitting that in his classes he took a high place, considers he was in no way a "prodigy." The late Mr. Lecky confessed that neither was he a prodigy; he passed his examinations in a good ordinary way, nothing more. M. Camille Flammarion, who wrote his first work, "The Plurality of Worlds," at the age of nineteen, began to study astronomy when five years old, "for it was the eclipse of the sun on October 9, 1847, which left on me the most unforgettable impression of the first years of my life." Baron d'Estournelles de Constant frankly admits that at the Lycée he did badly; but even at school,

he found a master who foretold for him an exceptional future. M. Paul Bourget makes a remarkable confession. He cannot remember the time when he could not read and write. When barely five, he read Shakespeare and Scott; but at school he was not remarkable. M. Sully-Prudhomme must certainly have been an unusual child himself, but does not think the precocity of a child any proof that a remarkable future is before it.

DOSTOIEVSKY STILL DOMINATES RUSSIAN LITERATURE.

IN a review of the letters of Dostoievsky, which have recently appeared in book form in Moscow, Ossip-Lourié, writing in the *Revue Socialiste*, gives a character sketch of the neurotic Russian sociological novelist "whose Dantesque figure has not ceased to dominate Russian literature." This writer calls Dostoievsky an "epileptic psycho-sociological romancer," and declares that the author of "Memoirs from a Dead House" and "Crime and Punishment" was an inspirer of the work of Nietzsche. To quote the novelist's own words:

"I am one of the proletariat of letters. I have never produced a work which I have not been paid for in advance. . . . It has happened to me many times that the beginning of a chapter of one of my novels was already in press while the end was still in my head and positively had to be written the next morning. My necessity, the lack of money, choked and strangled and gnawed at me. Ah! if I only had had money, my future would have been secure."

The great tragedy of the novelist's life was his condemnation and exile to Siberia because of his alleged connection with the Pétrachewsky affair. He had made an excellent start, and his first work, "Poor Folks" (1848), had a colossal success. The famous Russian critic, Biélinisky, after reading this work, wrote to the author: "Do you yourself understand what you have done? It is a new revelation in art. Be careful of your talent; you will become a very great writer." His second novel, "Sosie," was not so successful, but the third, "White Nights," was making him still more famous when the conspiracy was discovered. In April, 1849, the St. Petersburg police apprehended a group of twenty-three revolutionists, among them Dostoievsky, at the house of one of them, the since famous Pétrachewsky. The last-named was a disciple of Fourier, and his doctrines were, of course, considered dangerous to the state. They were all immediately put into prison and condemned to death; but Dostoievsky, and several

others, had their sentences commuted to exile, the author being sentenced to be deprived of all his rights and condemned to forced labor in Siberia. He denied ever sharing in Pétraschewsky's political and philosophical opinions. While in prison in the fortress, in eastern Siberia, he wrote many letters to his brother André. His sufferings in prison finally induced him to recant all his liberal, philosophical, and political views, so that not only was he content to confess that he had never wished for a Russian republic, but declared "that there was nothing good in Russia since Peter the Great which had not come down from the higher classes to the lower, from the throne to the people. From below, however, nothing good had ever mounted to the surface,—nothing but egoism and brutality." The life in prison almost maddened him. He wrote :

"The intellectual privations are much worse than the most horrible physical treatment which we undergo. The ordinary man sent here to this vile place finds himself, perhaps, in the society with which he is more or less familiar. He has lost his natal corner and his family, but his *milieu* remains the same. A man of culture, condemned by the law to suffer the same penalty as this man of the common people, suffers incomparably more than the latter. He must smother all his longings, choke off all his customs, and step down into a sphere much lower, with an air he is unaccustomed to breathe. He is like a fish thrown upon the sand. His punishment is sadder and harder to bear than is that of the ordinary man."

After four years of forced labor, and five in military service, Dostoevsky petitioned the Emperor Alexander II. for permission to return to St. Petersburg, in order that he might recover his health and look after his family interests. His material and physical condition was then pitiable. "I had to write for money, and abase my soul. . . . For six months my wife and I have been in such misery that our very last piece of linen is worn out. The little one has fallen sick, and my wife cannot get the necessary nourishment for her. . . . Look at Turgeneff and Gontcharov, those rich men! I wish they could see the condition in which I work."

It was at this time that Dostoevsky began to be inspired by his Panslavistic theory, which he afterward elaborated, and for which he has been so much condemned. "Conservative and mystic, which may have been Panslavistic qualities the most pure, a fervent disciple of the Orthodox Church, a perfect patriot, Dostoevsky became the hope, the supreme guide, of the Slavophiles, whose theory is Russia, and Russia only. The

Slavophiles would jealously guard their country from the foreign element, even as the Mussulmans guard the women of their harems. Every foreigner is an enemy. Russia should know nothing of the developments which European civilization could introduce into her political and social organism. To protect the national means of production against foreign markets, to guard the national development against every idea from the outside, to affirm that Peter the Great and Catherine the Second were wrong in trying to introduce foreign institutions and sciences,—these are the ideas of the Slavophiles." And of these Dostoevsky was chief.

"Dostoevsky knows, with a wonderful knowledge, the hearts of his heroes. He goes to the bottom of their hearts and reads the motives which guide their actions. He has sincere compassion for all humanity, for every one who suffers, with faith in the spiritual forte of the poor and oppressed. He goes down to the depths of the houses of shame, into the most horrible abysses of vice and misfortune. He shows how many of our ideas are moral or immoral only according to circumstances. He puts before us with a terrible plainness the fatal question of the responsibility of crime and virtue. He conducts his reader by successive steps and all sorts of moral descents to the very foundation of the human heart. All his pages vibrate with tenderness,—it is more than charity,—a tenderness which is a true, all-embracing love. . . . He delves deep down into the human soul and discovers the psychological impulses which so often disfigure it."

A WELL-KNOWN LIVING AUTHOR OF MEXICO.

LUIS GONZALEZ OBREGON, custodian of books in the Mexican National Library, is one of the best known of the young writers of our neighboring republic. According to John Hubert Comyn (in *Modern Mexico*), he is a type of literary man more or less common in Mexico since the Spanish conquest. "He combines carefulness of investigation with conscientiousness of execution, traits which make of him much of the antiquarian. But he has, which most antiquarians have not, a polished, vivid, and pleasing literary style. He has the power of making interesting subjects which we have been taught to look upon as prosy and uninteresting." Speaking of his best-known book, "Old Mexico," José P. Rivera, one of the most eminent critics among his countrymen, says :

"This book is more than a collection of separate articles. It is a document of the colonial period, through which there runs one prevailing

thought—Old Mexico. It is a great picture of other times, not so distant, it is true, yet fully worthy the attention of the historian. For those who occupy themselves with the past that they may read aright the present, for the students of modern philosophy who will not admit a fact without tracing it to its fountain-head, this book is of very great historical value, since it paints distinctly for us the manner of existence and gives us a kaleidoscopic picture of the growth of the Spanish colony in New Spain."

A CARTHUSIAN MONASTERY IN ENGLAND.

THERE are, it seems, less than a thousand Carthusians of both sexes in the world, so strict is the order, so severe the discipline. The life of some of this small number is described in the *March Pall Mall Magazine* by one who recently obtained admission to the English monastery of St. Hugh, Parkminster, facing the South Downs. Needless to say, the writer is a man, Mr. S. E. Winbolt, for no woman can, on any pretext, obtain admission. Severe as the order is, it is rich, and has recently been able to show hospitality to sixty of the monks who fell victims to the Law of Associations in France. As they go about their daily work the monks are absolutely silent, unless compelled to speak. Every day, between the angelus at 6 in the evening and that at 6.30 in the morning, there is the "Great Silence," not to be broken on any pretext whatever.

In such a monastery, the prior is supreme; after him comes the vicar, then the fathers, then the brothers, controlled by the procurator, who is also the housekeeper, spending the money and receiving it. St. Hugh's would now be poor but for its share of the profits from the sale of the famous "Chartreuse." The house was founded from La Grande Chartreuse in 1873.

"Of the three vows common in the Church, obedience, poverty, and chastity, the Carthusians take only that of obedience and stability, and promise '*conversionem morum meorum*,' or moral conversion, and these vows necessarily include the two others."

DAILY ROUTINE OF THE MONKS.

What do the monks do? is the question which will probably be asked by every one. The order is mainly contemplative; and although each father wears a hair shirt, the severities are more mental than physical,—each father having to wrestle much in prayer for the good estate of the members of the order, and to offer up many mediatorial intercessions for the sins of the world.

From 6 till 9, the novices and junior professed (not irrevocably severed from the world) engage in various devotional exercises; at 9, the inmates of the cells—always breakfastless, for the Carthusian may drink no tea, coffee, or cocoa unless he is ill—meditate for half an hour, and then for an equal time to their various occupations, wood-work, bookbinding, cultivating their gardens, or whatever it may be. When neither in chapel nor in cell, a brother is probably at his particular occupation in one of the "obediences." An obedience, it seems, is a place where carpentry, washing, or shoemaking is done. The pantry, kitchen, and blacksmith's shop are obediences. The monks do most necessary work themselves, although sometimes assisted by professional workmen retained about the house. In free time, with the permission of the prior, a monk may write letters, and occasionally receive a visit. Guests are allowed to stay in the guest-house two whole days, excluding the day of arrival and departure; but only a moderate amount of either letter-writing or visits is allowed.

Mr. Winbolt reminds us that, apart from the merits or demerits of asceticism, history has little, if anything, serious to charge against these brown or white habited friars. So long as monasteries are well-ordered and not too numerous to the population, he thinks they may be of service in "holding aloft the lamps of obedience, charity, and humility."

THE SECRET OF UNIVERSAL HAPPINESS.

WEALTH can really only be increased by the most rational and most complete exploitation of the resources of our globe, not by one nation at the expense of another. This is the thesis of a striking article by M. Novikoff in the *Nouvelle Revue*, in which he expounds a truly noble idea of universal happiness. He begins by asserting that it is a fundamental error to believe that the wealth of one nation can be increased at the expense of the wealth of another nation, and that it is equally an error to suppose that wealth can be increased by destroying it by means of bloated armaments and war.

How is this fraternity to be realized practically? M. Novikoff believes that the initiative in each country ought to belong, but does not actually, to the aristocracy, the governing and cultivated class, which always ought to be, even if it is not, in the van of progress. War is responsible for the perverted notion, which he admits is common in aristocracies, that to take wealth produced by others is honorable, while to produce wealth is shameful and degrading.

M. Novikoff has even less hopes of the middle

classes, who are hypnotized by the terror of socialism, and he declares that the object of socialism,—namely, to give to each inhabitant of each planet an existence worthy of man,—is the beginning and the ending of all political wisdom, while the means proposed,—namely, collectivism,—is pure madness. The solution of the social question, he says, is not only possible with individualism, but is only realizable by it. But so long as the present international anarchy endures, so long will the social question be insoluble.

THE NEW SAVIORS OF SOCIETY.

M. Novikoff is driven to conclude that salvation will come from the working classes,—from them will come that federation of the civilized world which, when it is realized, will produce one state so perfect that no one will want to change its institutions. Already the dominating powers on the globe are reduced to nine,—namely, Germany, England, Austria, China, the United States, France, Italy, Japan, and Russia,—and the pretended interests which divide them are merely phantoms created by the ignorance of statesmen. But from where will the initiative come? It will come, he says, from that government which will be the first to abandon the metaphysical distractions of diplomacy in order to consider the real, concrete interests of its citizens. He goes on to consider the great powers in order. Regretfully he admits that his own country, Russia, is the least promising of all. England, also, he rejects, in spite of the deep and ancient feeling of justice displayed by her citizens. Although she is the freest country in the world, yet, owing to the extraordinary narrow-mindedness of her statesmen, there is, unfortunately, little hope that she will take this magnificent initiative. He has some hopes of Germany, and some of the United States, though he is greatly troubled by the latter country's recent incursion into a policy of conquest.

WHO WILL BEGIN?

On the whole, it is on France and Italy, the two great Latin nations, that he bases his greatest hopes. Italy, he says, is the only modern nation whose public law is based on the principle

of nationalities. Union would come about by a simultaneous disarmament of the powers, which would place the European states in a position analogous to that of the forty-five republics which form the great federation of the United States. Such difficult questions as that of Alsace Lorraine would be settled by a plébiscite of the inhabitants.

THE FUTURE OF THE BIBLE.

CANON HENSLEY HENSON has an interesting article under this heading in the April number of the *Contemporary Review*. A revolution, he says, has taken place in educated Christian thought with respect to the sacred writings of Christianity.

The Old Testament has been discredited as a literally accurate record. The more sensitive people are often seriously troubled by it, and coarser minds are moved to contempt. There is an increasing number of passages which the church does not read in public. Another and more drastic revision may be necessary. Canon Henson quotes from a recently published school version of the Old Testament to show that even teachers of children qualify many things in the Old Testament. The New Testament, also, he believes, is bound to be eventually surrendered to the critics.

What, then, is the future of the Bible? Canon Henson is convinced that it will survive, quite apart from questions of inherent truthfulness or probability. It is the best manual we have of fundamental morality, and the "best corrective of ecclesiastic corruption." "In the third place, the Bible, and herein, of course, specially, though not exclusively, the New Testament, is perhaps the most effectual check we have on the materialistic tendencies of modern life."

The Bible will be looked upon differently in the future, but the change "need not imply any diminution of importance or influence."

The twentieth century, concludes Canon Henson, "will add yet another solemn historic affirmation of the Evangelic oracle to the long series which the Christian centuries contain,—Heaven and earth shall pass away, but my Word shall not pass away."



BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE POPULAR AMERICAN MONTHLIES.

The World's Fair in the Magazines.—The St. Louis Exposition was depicted in several of the April magazines,—notably by Montgomery Schuyler's article on the architecture of the fair, in *Scribner's*; by Mr. Charles B. Wells' description of the State buildings, in the *Outlook*, and by President Francis' own contribution, on "The Greatest World's Fair," in *Everybody's Magazine*. In the May numbers, besides the excellent articles contributed to the REVIEW of REVIEWS by Mr. Saunders and Mr. Ives, there appears in *Leslie's Monthly* an illustrated paper on the sculpture of the exposition, by Director Carl Bitter and Edward Hale Brush. Mr. Bitter is himself the subject of an appreciative sketch in the *Booklovers*, by J. Nilsen Laurvik. Editorial paragraphs in the *World's Work* give timely advice to people intending to visit the fair.

Discussion Incited by the War.—Practically all of the English reviews and some of the American magazines for April and May have articles relating more or less directly to the war in the far East. We have given our readers the benefit of much of this discussion in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month." In this country, perhaps the most important contribution on the general theme is that made by an Englishman, Sir Charles Dilke, in the pages of the *North American Review* for April. This writer dwells with enthusiasm on the soldierly qualities displayed by the Japanese in the Boxer troubles of 1900. In the same review, "Anglo-American" discloses "Some Revelations of the War," most significant of which is the supposed end of the "traditional" friendship between the United States and Russia. In the *Booklovers* for May, Harold Bolce gives the third installment of "The Two Pacifics,"—"If Japan Should Win." This is a bright account (written from Yokohama) of the Japanese as they appear in their homes, in business life, and in social functions. In the same magazine appears a study of Japanese caricature,—"An Imported National Humor,"—by J. Berg Esenwein. In the *May Century*, Dr. Arthur J. Brown writes on "Unhappy Korea," giving his own recent experiences as a traveler in that land, and Mr. Homer B. Hulbert, editor of the *Korea Review*, of Seoul, contributes a well-informed statement of Korea's position in the present conflict.

American Politics.—The approaching Presidential campaign has hardly begun, as yet, to modify the contents of our popular periodicals, although a few articles appear in the May numbers which may have been suggested by the thought that the American public will soon begin to take a lively interest in national politics. In the *World's Work* there is an interesting paper by Frank Basil Tracy on "The Stability of Our Political Parties," showing that the percentage of the popular vote polled by the respective parties in a series of elections varies but little, and that conservatism is the one certain political characteristic of our people. A writer

in the same periodical on "Just How a Presidential Campaign Affects Business" gives it as his opinion that the West probably underestimates the effect of the election upon business, while the East probably overestimates it. Sketches of political personalities figure in several of the May magazines. Day Allen Willey writes in *Munsey's* on "The Personality of Theodore Roosevelt," while in *Success* there appears a character sketch of Judge Alton B. Parker, by Robert Adamson. Senator Dick, of Ohio, of whom the country knows comparatively little, is the subject of a sketch in *Munsey's*, by Francis B. Gessner. One of the most interesting bits of political portraiture that have seen the light in recent months is the sketch of Senator Quay, by Joseph M. Rogers, in the *Booklovers*. By way of reminiscence, the same writer's account of "How Hayes Became President," in *McClure's Magazine*, has unique interest, particularly to politicians. "Silent Forces of Congress" is the title of an article in *Leslie's* by W. H. Hunter, who presents a whole gallery of "statesmen who talk little and do much." In the *World's Work*, Franklin Matthews describes "The Day's Work of the Mayor of New York."

The Negro from Different Points of View.—In the May number of *McClure's*, Mr. Thomas Nelson Page brings to a close his discussion of "The Negro: The Southerner's Problem." In these articles, Mr. Page has presented very frankly the Southerner's view-point, maintaining that the dark picture that he draws of the present social degradation of the Southern negro is not only fully warranted by facts, but is accepted as true by all the Northerners who have lived for any length of time in the South. Mr. Page quotes with approval the statements made by Mr. William Hannibal Thomas in his book "The American Negro." Quite a different view of the negro is that presented by Col. Thomas W. Higginson in the *Atlantic Monthly*. Colonel Higginson has based his treatment of the subject on his own personal recollections of the negro as he found him in the South during the Civil War. He takes occasion, in this connection, to combat what he terms the common delusion that the only people who ever understood the negroes were those who had known them in slavery. Colonel Higginson predicts that the enfranchisement of the negroes will never be undone, and that those States that are most unjust to them now will in time learn to prize their presence and regret their absence.

The Immigration Problem.—"Is the New Immigration Dangerous to the Country?" is the question raised in an article by Mr. O. P. Austin, chief of the Bureau of Statistics in the Department of Commerce and Labor, in the April number of the *North American Review*. His conclusions are that the present immigration is not beyond the power of assimilation; that the so-called "objectionable class" is not the class which is filling the jails and almshouses; that the education of the

children of these immigrants is likely to compare favorably with that of our own population; that the immigrants are not, as a class, a dangerous element in politics, and that they are an important factor in the development and wealth-producing power of the country. Dr. Roland P. Falkner, writing in the current number of the *Political Science Quarterly*, presents statistics which tend to confirm Mr. Austin's conclusions. In *Leslie's* for May, Mr. Broughton Brandenburg describes the voyage of a shipload of Italian immigrants from their native shores to New York. The significant thing in Mr. Brandenburg's account is the fact that he himself made the voyage in the steerage with the Italian immigrants. His description of the steerage accommodations makes it clear that this class of passengers is cruelly overcrowded.

Industrial Conflicts.—Ray Stannard Baker relates, in *McClure's*, the whole history of the "Reign of Lawlessness" in Colorado. He distributes the blame with even-handed impartiality between the miners' unions, the mine-owners, the judges and other civil officers, and the military. Regarding the strike of the coal-miners, Mr. Baker finds that out of the five principal demands of the union on the employers, two are to enforce laws already on the statute books, while the third, the eight-hour demand, was already a constitutional law, and would have been on the statute books had the Legislature carried out the will of the people. Writing in the *North American Review* for April, on the general theme of "Industrial Liberty, Not Industrial Anarchy," Prof. Henry Loomis Nelson protests against the "communistic" results from granting the demands of the present-day organized labor, and declares that in contending against this leveling communism the employer is rendering a service both to the community and to the wage-earner himself. In the *World's Work* for May, Mr. William E. Walling describes the campaign now being carried out by employers' associations all over the country with a view to the non-unionizing of all industry. He shows that the employers who are joining this movement will stop at nothing short of the "open shop," and that the associations are resolved to conquer the unions alone and unaided.

American Diplomacy.—Apropos of everything relating to the Louisiana Purchase, there is a full account in the May *Atlantic* of the diplomatic contest for the Mississippi Valley, by Prof. Frederick J. Turner, of the University of Wisconsin, who contributed an account of the Louisiana Purchase to the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* for May, 1908. In the *Atlantic* article, Professor Turner makes use of various historical sources that have been neglected by most previous historians. In *Harper's* for May, Prof. John Bassett Moore, of Columbia University, writes on "Our System of Neutrality." Professor Moore includes in his sketch an account of the perilous complications which surrounded Washington's administration and nearly led to war with France. In *Scribner's*, Captain Mahan continues his history of the War of 1812.

Our Colonial Responsibilities.—Prof. Edwin Maxey outlines in *Gunton's Magazine* for April the progress that has been made in Porto Rico under American rule; this subject is also treated in a very interesting way by Mr. John Ball Osborne in the *World's Work* for May. "Our Mohammedan Subjects" is the

title of an interesting article by E. A. Dodge in the current number of the *Political Science Quarterly*. Such problems of colonial administration as naturally group themselves about the curious personality of the Sultan of Sulu are suggested rather than discussed in an article contributed to *Everybody's Magazine* for May by Frank J. Hogan. Dr. Stephen Pierce Duggan gives, in the April number of *Gunton's*, the results of a study of French colonial experiments in both hemispheres.

Santo Domingo's Distracted State.—Two of the May magazines have articles on Santo Domingo. The chaotic conditions prevailing in the island are described for *Leslie's* by William Bayard Hale. In the *World's Work*, "Our Problem in Santo Domingo" is outlined by William Thorp, who describes the frequent and persistent attacks on American interests in the island, sets forth the strategic importance of the country, and even suggests the possibilities of intervention by the United States.

Out-of-Door Topics.—Themes suggestive of the opening season have a prominent place in most of the current periodicals. We note, especially, the following titles in the May numbers: "Æsthetics of the Sky," by Richard Le Gallienne, in *Harper's*; "The Yellowstone National Park," by Arnold Hogue, in *Scribner's*; "The Most Athletic Nation in the World" (Switzerland), by H. H. Boyesen (2d), in the *Cosmopolitan*; "The French Renaissance in Athletics," by Lamar Middleton, in *Outing*; "The American Garden," by George W. Cable, in *Scribner's*; "A Flower Garden for Every Child" (an account of the work of the Home Gardening Association of Cleveland), by J. M. Bowles, in the *World's Work*; "Unfamiliar Sports," by H. S. Archer, in the *Cosmopolitan*; "A Pariah of the Sky-line" (the coyote), by Arthur Chapman, in *Outing*; and "The World's Roughest Riding" (the cowboy carnival at Cheyenne), by M. E. Stickney. The *Outlook* (magazine number for April) had a capital illustrated article on "The Lumber-Jack and His Job," by William D. Hubbard, and a description (with photographs) of "Some American Trees," by J. Horace McFarland.

Developments in Photography.—"The Story of the Camera," by W. B. Ashley, in *Outing* for May, will interest every amateur photographer who reads it. The wonderful history of the daguerreotype is traced in the May *Century* by Abraham Bogardus, and the same story is told, in more of technical detail, in the current number of the *Photo-Miniature*. The *Century* also reproduces some examples of photographic records from the exhibit to be made at St. Louis of the work of Sir Benjamin Stone.

Automobiling.—There is a suggestive article in *Outing* for May, undertaking to explain "Why Women Are, or Are Not, Good Chauffeurs." The writer, for prudential reasons, doubtless, omits to sign his name to his production. Under the title "From Coast to Coast in an Automobile," M. C. Krarup tells, in the *World's Work* for May, the story of the fastest motor-car trip ever made across the continent. The article is illustrated from photographs taken by the author during his adventurous journey. In the article which he contributes to *Success* for May on "The Limitless Power of a New World-Industry," Frank Fayant shows how the automobile is improving hygienic conditions.

Following the Sea.—A half-dozen articles in the current magazines are calculated to interest especially those who feel attracted to the seafaring life in any of its phases. Norman Duncan, in *Harper's*, tells the varied adventures of "The Fleet on 'The Labrador,'" while P. T. McGrath describes for the *Cosmopolitan's* readers the unfamiliar experience of "Whale-Hunting by Steam," and in *Leslie's*, Frank T. Bullen relates, in his inimitable fashion, "The Story of a Whale." "The Making of a British Tar" is the subject of an article by Broughton Brandenburg in the *Cosmopolitan*. Winthrop Packard contributes to the *Booklovers Magazine* a survey of the important duties intrusted to the stewards of an ocean liner, above and below decks; the woes of the duty-paying and duty-evading passengers on these liners are unfolded in an amusing sketch by O. K. Davis, in the *Century*; and Albert Bigelow Paine, writing in *Scribner's*, describes the daily life of the tugboat crews in New York Harbor.

Wasted Machinery on the Panama Canal.—The effect of the moist atmosphere on iron and steel along the line of the Panama Canal has wrought havoc with the costly machinery imported by the original French company. Examples of this destruction and waste are cited by George Ethelbert Walsh in *Cassier's* for May. He estimates the value of the machinery thus sacrificed at \$50,000,000. Proper care in storage and protection might have saved all this. There is a lesson here for the American engineers and contractors.

Discoveries in Radiation.—A clear and authentic statement and interpretation of all the important dis-

coveries of the past few years in the field of radioactivity, about which so much is written nowadays, is contributed to the *Popular Science Monthly* for April by Prof. R. A. Millikan, of the University of Chicago. An interview with the Curies, the discoverers of radium, by Mrs. Emily Crawford, appears in the April number of *The World To-Day* (Chicago).

L'Art Nouveau.—In the April installment of the *Magazine of Art's* symposium on "L'Art Nouveau: What it is and what is thought of it," several eminent artists and art critics participate,—including H. W. B. Davis, G. D. Leslie, George Frampton, G. H. Boughton, and H. S. Tuke. Mr. Davis denies the claim of "the new art" to its name. Mr. Leslie applies to it the epigram of Coleridge *in re* phrenology: "There is much in it that is new and much in it that is true, but that which is true is not new, and that which is new is not true." Mr. Boughton thinks that the new cult tends backward toward the "Primitives" of the cave-dwellers' era. Most of these English artists seem to turn a cold shoulder toward the French innovation.

Russian and Japanese Art.—In the May number of the *International Studio*, the editor, Mr. Charles Holme, writes on "Japanese Flower-Painting," illustrating his article with numerous reproductions of the work of native artists. The same magazine contains an account of "Modern Russian Art," accompanied by illustrations from the leading painters of Moscow. It is announced that future numbers of the *Studio* will attempt to do justice to other great Russian painters and sculptors.

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

Regulation of the Milk-Supply in Germany.—One of the most important social and economic questions before Germany to-day, says Franz von Soxhlet, is the hygiene of the milk-supply. This writer has an exhaustive consideration of the subject in the new German review, *Süddeutsche Monatshefte* (Munich and Leipzig), in which he considers the subject of infant mortality and its significance to national welfare. He points out that of the two million children who are born in the German Empire every year, over four thousand die before they are a year old. After Russia, Germany has the largest death-rate of children among civilized nations. In the years 1894-96, an average of 22 per cent. of the nursing children in German cities died from cholera infantum,—most of which was brought on, the writer insists, through the imperfect and unhealthful milk-supply. He urges mothers to nurse their own children, and strongly advocates a more rigid inspection of the public milk-supply. German mothers, also, he declares, should be instructed in sanitary matters, in the question of food values, and also should know the effects of temperature.

The Mineral Resources of Korea.—The French scientific journal, *Mercur*, declares that Korea possesses some of the richest mines of gold, silver, copper, iron, and coal, and many petroleum deposits. The production of gold had doubled from 1898 to 1902, in the former year somewhat over a million dollars' worth having been mined, while two years ago the product

was worth almost three millions. By far the greater part of this gold is sent to Japan. The iron and coal deposits, while very rich, have not been exploited. Copper, however, is produced in several sections, the value of the amount mined in 1903 being fifty thousand dollars. The crown retains the right to all products of the mines of Korea, and to exploit them, special authorization is necessary.

Blind and Deaf-Mute Schools in Japan.—A summary of the report of M. Félix Régamey, of the Paris board of education, who has recently returned from an investigation of the Japanese school system, is published in the *Revue Internationale Pédagogie Comparative* (Nantes). M. Régamey says that the first thing that struck him, upon entering the section for the blind in the school in Tokio, was the air of contentment on their faces,—a certain quiet, grave enjoyment, which contrasted strongly with the animation and vivacity, perhaps a little restless, of the deaf-mutes. The director, Mr. Kano Tomonobu, exhibited some of the drawing work of his deaf-mute pupils, among which were excellent water-colors of flowers, birds, a cherry tree in bloom, and a patriotic allegory,—all these by children of less than fifteen years.

The Greatest Living French Sculptor.—The fame of Auguste Rodin has begun to spread in Germany, and is taking as much a considerable hold on Teutonic sculpture circles as the German music of Wagner captivated

the French. The *Illustrirte Zeitung* (Berlin) publishes an illustrated character sketch of Rodin, in which it characterizes him as one of the greatest of all sculptors. Rodin, it says, has brought about a revolution in the very elements of the development of sculpture. "His is a naturalism, but a remarkably artistic one. He gives us allegory with the simplest materials. In plastic form, he tells us all he feels and all he thinks; and he is not only an observer of form in its lighter manifestations. His works are character studies and pictures as well as statues. His Victor Hugo monument is an expression of poetry and literature. His Balzac monument is a character study as well as a statue." Perhaps his most powerful, original conception, the writer of this sketch declares, is the one known as "The Thinker," a cut of which is reproduced below.

"THE THINKER," BY AUGUSTE RODIN.

The Woman Question in Italy.—The woman question progresses but slowly in Italy. A step forward, however, has been recently taken by the foundation, in Florence, of a society to encourage the social action of women. It will be in the first instance mainly educative, and the inaugural address delivered by Senator Tancredi Canonico, explaining its scope, is reproduced in the *Rassegna Nazionale* (Rome).

White Versus Yellow.—Prof. Charles Richet writes a letter to *La Revue* (Paris) in which he states his difficulty in understanding how any one can hesitate which side to take in this question of White against Yellow. Europeans are all practically one race; a Yellow man is, and always must be, a Yellow man. He proclaims the innate superiority of White over Yellow,—a superiority demonstrated alike by science and history, and by the unanimous consent, avowed or understood, of all white men, and even of the Yellow races and negroes.

Fate of Dutch East Indies.—*De Gids* (Amsterdam) has a contribution by Dr. Byvanck on Javanese ethnology. He tells us of past investigators, who have been British, and three in number; there is a good deal of splendid isolation about the natives of Java, and Raffles (one of the aforesaid investigators) speaks of their "gloomy indolence;" but the Dutch are learning more about their colonists, and hope to do something more for them when they understand them, and to get more out of them,—not in the bad sense of the term. The recent Atjeh expedition taught them something, and ethnological museums which have been established will also prove useful in this respect. *Onze Eeuw* contains a most interesting and striking article on the idea, recently mooted by the Socialist party, of voluntarily ceding some, at least, of the Dutch colonial possessions to another power,—Java, for instance. The writer of this contribution thinks that the idea ought not to be either accepted or dismissed without earnest consideration. The disadvantage would lie in the fact that it would be a bar to Dutch extension at a time when most powers are seeking to extend, and it would possibly mean a loss of prestige; on the other hand, there is required, for the proper development of the colonies and the welfare of the native population, a sum of money so vast that the narrow resources of the mother country are unequal to the demand.

French Decadence.—Prof. E. J. Dubedout, of the French department of the University of Chicago, considers it worth while to reply to the various magazine and newspaper references to the decadence of the French people. In *l'Écho des Deux Mondes* (Chicago), he reviews the entire charge, and presents historical evidence of France's vigor. To the first count, that the French do not know other peoples, he replies: "Will you cite for me an Anglo-Saxon work on France which can be compared to the 'English Letters' of Voltaire, 'The History of English Literature' of Taine, 'The Democracy in America' of Tocqueville, or 'The Russian Novel' of Devogüé?" On the count of frivolity, he cites the names of Descartes, of Pascal, of Bossuet, of La Biche, and of Meilhac. In biology, he finds the French preëminent. "Who founded chemistry? Lavoisier. Who founded philosophical zoology? Lamarck. Embryology? Saint-Hilaire. Histology? Bichat. Microbiology? Pasteur. Romance Philology? Gaston Paris. Who discovered radium? Curie. And permit the wicked suggestion: The scientists who have been benefactors to humanity have been Frenchmen."

France in South Morocco.—A couple of paragraphs in the daily newspapers poking fun at France's attack on Figuig the Oasis, south of Morocco, is about all the civilized world knows of the vast region in Africa, almost as large as France, which the republic is gradually exploiting. Rémy Saint-Maurice has an article in the *Revue Bleue* in which he considers Figuig historically and geographically. There is already quite a large commerce in the section, he declares, and one of the small villages, Beni-Ounif, in less than a year has increased from forty houses to over two hundred. Palm oil, roses for perfume, and ivory are the principal productions which are taken by caravans to the Mediterranean through Algeria. The French governmental programme with regard to South Morocco, M. Maurice declares, does not contemplate any military enterprise,

but "to advance our moral influence rather than our army, and to bring about an industrial and commercial infiltration." There is no intention of annexing the region. The French doctors have been especially influential in bringing about the republic's supremacy in this region. The Figuigians possess certain surgical knowledge, but of sanitation in general they, of course, have little idea. Doctors soon gain the reputation of miracle-workers. As ophthalmia is one of the most prevalent diseases, they can, in a literal sense, open the eyes of the natives to the benefits of French civilization.

The Wanderings of Ulysses.—A French writer (Victor Bérard) has made a very thorough study of the Mediterranean world supposed to have been visited by Ulysses. His book, "The Phœnician and the Odyssey," is reviewed in the *Revue Universelle* (Paris). From the description of Homer, he traces the itinerary of the famous Greek, as indicated on the accompanying map. Of Homer's sources of information, he says: "The Phœnician navigators, who very early had sailed over the Mediterranean, brought back the stories of their voyages, and wrote them down on parchments, some of which have been preserved in their temples. Homer probably knew of these voyages and descriptions, and had access to these parchments, from which he reconstructed the voyage of the celebrated Ulysses." M. Bérard's service to literature and history, the reviewer maintains, is due to the "exceedingly accurate and solid documentary evidence which Victor Bérard has discovered in a work for a long time considered as a pure fantasy."

Spanish Heroes of the Philippines.—Amid the salutes of the American warships and the full military honors of the Spanish ship *Island of Panay*, the remains of the defenders of Cavite against the Americans under Dewey were disinterred about a month ago and put aboard a Spanish vessel, to be transported and reinterred in Madrid. *Nuevo Mundo* (Madrid) describes the transfer of the remains, and comments enthusias-

tically upon the sympathy and respect, not only of the Spanish residents in the Philippines, but also of the "Yankees" and the natives.

An Anecdote of Pius X.—An anonymous article on the last days of Pope Leo XIII. and the Conclave of 1903 is contributed to the *Revue Des deux Mondes* by an eyewitness. This writer recounts an interesting story which seems to be new. One of the French cardinals found himself next to a colleague who was a stranger, and to whom he said, in French, "Your eminence is doubtless an Italian archbishop,—in what diocese?" The stranger answered, in Italian, "I do not speak French." The conversation was then carried on in Latin. "In what diocese are you archbishop?" asked the French cardinal. "I am the Patriarch of Venice," was the answer, and the stranger went on to give thanks to God that he

MAP OF THE WANDERINGS OF ULYSSES.

was not "papabile," because he could not speak French. As all the world knows, however, it was this humble Patriarch of Venice who was elected. It has since been proved that his modesty was too great. He speaks French well. The writer attributes the election of Cardinal Sarto directly to the effect produced by the Austrian veto on Cardinal Rampolla, which was announced by the Cardinal-Archbishop of Cracow.

SCIENCE IN FOREIGN PERIODICALS.

Is This to Be a Century of Radio-Activity?—In a résumé and discussion of the subject of radio-active substances,—uranium, pitchblende, radium, helium, polonium, actinium, and thorium,—in the *Bibliothèque Universelle* (Lausanne), A. Bernoud says: "Actually, thousands of investigators are attacking the subject of radio-active substances, and there is not a milligram of these precious elements which is not submitted to the torture and summoned to deliver up its secret. The power and the skill of the investigator; the genius of the physicians and the chemists, who do the investigating; the progress which this question has made toward solu-

tion during the past few years,—all indicate to us a future full of significance and useful surprises; and, just as the nineteenth century has been called the age of electricity, the twentieth will, without doubt, be baptized as the age of radium."

Trees and National Decay.—A graphic picture of the part played by deforestation in the national decadence of Spain is the main feature of Dr. Félix Regnault's study of deforestation in a recent number of *La Revue*. The cutting down of the forests on the mountains of central Spain, he points out, has made the climate ex-

cessively dry, and therefore sterile, this fact being the prime cause of the intellectual and industrial stagnation of the peasants, who are "worked to death to support life." Dr. Regnault severely condemns the practice, which he finds prevalent in this country, of "burning out" forests.

Measuring the Perfume of Flowers.—In the proceedings of the French Biological Society (reported in the *Revue Scientifique*), there is an account of a new method for measuring the amount of perfume emitted by flowers. This method, devised by Drs. Billard and Dieulaufé, is based on the viscosity and tension of liquids. The essence of different flowers is liquefied and passed through a fine membrane. The number of drops penetrating in a given time, with a certain other factor of quantity, indicates the amount of perfume in the flowers. For example, in a fixed quantity of solvent liquid (water and alcohol), from three drops of essence of mint were transfused one hundred and twelve drops of perfume in fifteen minutes and fifteen seconds; and from two drops of lavender, one hundred and twenty-six drops in fourteen minutes and fifty-three seconds.

About Celluloid.—A little account of the history of the invention and development of celluloid is given by Drs. Thabius and Hulbault in the *Revue Scientifique*. Celluloid (a mixture of gun-cotton and camphor, solidified by the action of alcohol) was discovered, probably in 1855, by a Welshman named Parkes, who declared he had invented a substitute for gutta-percha, which he called Parkesine. Ten years later, one Spiers, of Birmingham, established, in London, the British Xyloid Company, to manufacture xyloid, which was really the modern celluloid. The modern product with the modern name, however, in its latest development, is the work of two Americans, the brothers Hyatt, of Newark, N. J. The writers go on to explain the process of manufacture and the various uses of the product, paying particular attention to its explosiveness and how this may be guarded against. The Russo-Japanese War, they declare, has so raised the price of camphor, which comes principally from the Japanese colonial possession, Formosa, that some substitute for camphor will have to be discovered. They enumerate the objects usually made from celluloid, which make quite a list, including surgical apparatus, dental "fixings," jewels, pencils, pins, piano-keys, rulers, billiard balls, writing-tablets, umbrella-handles, knife-handles, and many other small articles which come under the general head of *articles de Paris*.

Does the Earth Go Round?—The fact that a great many usually thoughtful and well-informed French journals have been casting serious doubt on this question has aroused the amazed wrath of the astronomer M. Camille Flammarion. Speaking of these various newspaper articles discussing the fixity of the earth, in *La Revue*, he says:

"To conclude from these dissertations, these *jeux d'esprit*, that modern astronomers doubt the movement of the earth, is to ignore the very fundamental framework of their geometrical discussions. A Jesuit, in the eighteenth century, Father Boscovich, greatly embarrassed as to how to finish off his astronomical calculations on the hypothesis—still taught by his superiors—of the earth's stability, calmly adds as his

justification: 'The earth's movement is not demonstrated; nevertheless, I will act as if it did turn round.' Great heavens! what else could he do? And was it not the pious Pascal who, without so much as daring to take any side, declared simply that if it were proved that the earth turned round the whole of mankind together could not oppose this movement,—could not avoid turning round with it? Since that time, we know with certainty that the earth turns round. . . . To doubt the movement of the rotation of the earth is to go back, not merely two or three centuries, but more than two thousand years, for the Pythagoreans taught this movement. And Aristotle and 'his learned cabal' opposed the opinion down to Copernicus."

The Prevention of Yellow Fever.—The general interest in the solution of the yellow-fever problem has led to many articles of a more or less popular character. Few of them are written so clearly and to the point as the one by Dr. Edmond Sergent in the March number of *Science au XXe Siècle*. Yellow fever is endemic only in the new world and on one part of the African coast, to which it was probably carried by returning negroes; but it has been carried to a large number of localities surrounding the Atlantic Ocean. He describes the investigations made by American physicians in Cuba, the results of which are known to most people. They proved conclusively that the disease is carried by a species of mosquito, and that the means of disinfection which had formerly been used were entirely useless. As far back as 1848, Dr. John Nott had suggested a connection between mosquitoes and the spread of the disease; but the suggestion received little attention. In 1901, Dr. Finlay stated that a particular mosquito was the means of communication. The American commission took up the work in 1900. The results, so far as the treatment of patients is concerned, he summarizes as follows: 1. *Stegomyia fasciata* (the mosquito in question) is the only means of transmission of the disease under natural conditions. 2. The soiled clothing of the sick, and the sick themselves, are not dangerous. 3. The virus of the fever exists in the blood only the first three days of the disease. 4. The bite of a mosquito is dangerous for twelve days. 5. The longest incubation period of the disease is thirteen days.

Sanitary Condition of the French Navy.—Dr. Lowenthal, in two successive numbers of the *Revue Scientifique*, treats of the sanitary condition of the French navy. He compares the French and English navies in 1900. The treatment of the subject is statistical, and makes a somewhat detailed comparison in an interesting and instructive way. In summing up, he shows that the deaths in the French navy are vastly in excess of those in the English. The number of those retired and invalided in the French navy is 300 per cent. greater than in the English, while the losses from tuberculosis are 350 per cent. greater. In discussing the causes of the difference, he makes the following points: First.—Too little discrimination is used in France in enlisting recruits. Large numbers are taken who are susceptible to disease. Second.—The men are kept in unhealthy locations, where they come in contact with the sick, and are especially subjected to infection from tuberculosis. Third.—The sanitary condition of the ships is bad. Fourth.—There is great carelessness in regard to the supply of food and potable water.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

DISCUSSIONS OF NATIONAL PROBLEMS.

The nation at large is still very far from comprehending the distinctive problems that the South has to face, but Southern writers and speakers are more and more getting a national hearing, while the "Conference for Education in the South" is every year bringing representative national leaders into closer touch with the Southern educational movement and its personnel. Such a book as "The Present South," by the Rev. Edgar Gardner Murphy (Macmillan), can do much

by way of stimulating intelligent interest in questions that concern the North hardly less vitally than they do the South. In his little book, Mr. Murphy discusses several important issues of the day besides the ever-present negro problem. He speaks from accurate knowledge of educational conditions, and especially of child labor. He offers no panaceas for the correction of the evils that he depicts. The service of

EDGAR GARDNER MURPHY.

his book consists mainly in showing—first, the difficulties surrounding these problems; second, the attitude of representative Southern opinion in reference to the problems; and, third, what the South is doing along the lines of amelioration. Calm and moderate statements of conditions and opinions are far more valuable at this juncture than volumes of controversial matter. To the great mass of Northern readers, much of what Mr. Murphy has to say regarding the common schools of the South will be quite new; even to some of his Southern readers, the facts may be brought home for the first time.

It is emphatically true of the book as a whole that it makes a distinct contribution of light without heat, and that, we take it, is the most helpful offering that any Southern man can make to his countrymen at the present time.

The publication in *McClure's Magazine* of a series of articles by Lincoln Steffens dealing with municipal rottenness in certain American cities was a

LINCOLN STEFFENS.

stroke of good journalism, to say the least. The articles were frank, fearless, and, in the opinion of the persons best qualified to judge, moderate and restrained in their statements of fact. If it was good journalism to print the articles in the magazine, it is equally good journalism to collect them in book form. The cities dealt with in "The Shame of the Cities" (McClure, Phillips & Co.),—New York, Chicago, St. Louis, Pittsburg, Philadelphia, and Minneapolis,—are by no means the only examples of municipal corruption to be found in the United States; nor is corruption in those or in other cities unrelieved by honorable achievement. Every one of the cities named has much to its credit, as we all know. American cities are making progress, in spite of all the corruption. But Mr. Steffens could make his appeal to the civic conscience effective only by turning the light on the whole revolting picture of the grafters' carnival as it has gone on for years in cities where the honest, well-meaning citizen has been too busy with his own affairs to look closely after the public interests. It was not his business to picture the other side of the shield. The average citizen must be told how he is plundered. The grafters' methods must be exposed. It is not merely good journalism to do this,—it is a patriotic service; and that is the kind of service that Mr. Steffens has rendered through his articles, and now through his book.

GREATER AMERICA AND ITS DESTINY.

Two works on the national destiny of the American people have been written by Archibald R. Colquhoun, an English student of American civilization. A new edition of Mr. Colquhoun's "Mastery of the Pacific" (Macmillan) has appeared. This volume was one of the pioneers in the literature on the great ocean which, during the present generation, has become the center of the entanglement of modern international politics, and is rapidly making its name—Pacific—a misnomer. The author has had a long and formative experience in connection with the British foreign office. He has also been special correspondent of the *London Times* in the far East, and has written a number of works now almost standard,—*"China in Transformation," "The 'Overland' to China,"* and others. He divides his work into five sections, considering the influence and future, in the Pacific, of—(1) the United States, (2) Great Britain, (3) Holland, (4) Japan, (5) other powers.

ARCHIBALD R. COLQUHOUN.

He believes that the United States is bound to become

the dominant factor in the mastery of the Pacific. "She has all the advantages, qualifications, and some of the ambitions necessary for the rôle, and her unrivaled resources and fast-increasing population provide the material for future greatness. She is, however, embarking on an entirely new phase in her career, and is taking risks and responsibilities which she has hitherto been spared, and which, if they are to be carried to a successful conclusion, demand certain sacrifices and a remodeling of many of her most hidebound conventions. A great deal of the machinery necessary for dealing with the complicated web of foreign affairs into which the United States has been drawn has yet to be created and organized, and large demands will be made on the patriotism and public spirit of the people."

In his later book, "Greater America" (Harpers), Mr. Colquhoun attempts to present to American and British readers the American evolution as a whole, "to treat her history from the standpoint of its wide national significance." America, he believes, is at a critical period in her history. The advance of Russia overland, of America overseas, and the regeneration of Japan,—these are the three great factors in the transformation of the Pacific, and it is a great part that the United States is destined to play in this transformation. Panama, the Caribbean, South America, and Canada all come in for consideration. One of the most interesting chapters is the one entitled "The American People." We are not strictly honest with ourselves, he believes. If, he asserts, "the American would acknowledge freely and honestly the break-down of the democratic system, would accept his position as the dominant factor in a great republican empire, would cease to endeavor to square his theory with his practice, he might still advance along the paths of progress, might achieve the freest and most liberal form of government, but would still not be debarred from dealing justly with alien and subject races" [the negro, the Filipino, and others].

Excellent as he concedes the American system of education to be, he insists that it is open to the criticism that it is toward materialism, "a sacrifice of the more subtle forms of character-development, which is the true aim of education, for a mere training in certain 'ologies' and 'isms'."

BOOKS OF HISTORY.

A clearer, more graphic, idea of the great American Southwest is obtained from Frederick Austin Ogg's "Opening of the Mississippi" (Macmillan) than from any history of the Louisiana Purchase we have yet seen. Primarily intended to be a history of the discovery, exploration, and contested rights of navigation of the great river prior to 1812, the book has really been broadened into a story of the entire Mississippi Valley. It has been the fortune of but few rivers or other physical features of the globe to appear so continuously in the annals of dis-

FREDERICK AUSTIN OGG.

covery and diplomacy as has the Mississippi, which has the other great distinction of yielding food for a vast, dense population under conditions that stimulate to energy, thrift, and culture on the part of its inhabitants. The history of the Spanish, French, and English attempts to gain and hold our great West, and the final sale of Louisiana to the United States, with skillful piloting through the mazes of the old-world diplomacy relating to this mighty stream, and just enough explanatory foot-notes to round out the text, make this a scholarly and interesting volume.

"The West was sown by a race of giants and reaped by a race far different, and in a day dissimilar." The Iliad of the West has come to be a favorite theme with

authors, from President Roosevelt—should we say down? Emerson Hough, author of "The Mississippi Bubble," has attempted to set down the story of this mighty pilgrimage in his new book, "The Way to the West" (Bobbs-Merrill). It is a history of the American man that he aims to write,—of the man of the American West,— "for the history of America is but the history of the West." He is not concerned with chronology, nor with

EMERSON HOUGH.

stories of martial or political triumphs. He considers the American man at four epochs,—when, on his west-bound pilgrimage, he crossed the Alleghanies; when he crossed the Mississippi, when he crossed the Rocky Mountains, and, finally, when he is crossing the Pacific Ocean. The volume is illustrated by Frederic Remington.

Ex-Comptroller Hepburn's history of the "Contest for Sound Money" (Macmillan) can hardly be expected to attract as much attention at the present time as was granted a few years ago to far less meritorious works on the same general subject. The great captains, with their guns and drums, have ceased, it is true, to disturb our judgment on this once momentous issue, but the silence that has followed their clamor betokens apathy not less than calmness. We are too prone to forget what Mr. Hepburn, in this book, wisely insists upon,—that most important currency questions are yet to be solved. The only adequate basis of equipment for the teacher, the journalist, or the statesman who would deal with those problems must lie in a thorough knowledge of our national coinage and currency systems. The

A. B. HEPBURN.

mass of data required in a study of this kind has never before, we believe, been so effectively presented in a single volume of popular character as in Mr. Hepburn's book.

A very scholarly and valuable bibliography of American history during 1903 has been compiled by Ernest Cushing Richardson and Anson Ely Morse. It is issued under the auspices of the Princeton University Library, under the title "Writings on American History—1903: An attempt at an exhaustive bibliography of books and articles on United States history published during the year 1903, and some memoranda of other portions of America." The compilers have now in preparation the issue for 1903. The entries are made in alphabetical order of subjects and of authors, and the work is equipped with an excellent index.

The "Review of Historical Publications Relating to Canada," edited by Prof. George M. Wrong and Librarian Langton, of the University of Toronto (Toronto: Librarian of the University), is an annual publication which might very wisely be imitated in the United States. All the important books that appeared during 1903 treating of Canada's relations to the British Empire, of Canadian general history, military history, and biography, and of provincial and local history, as well as works in the departments of geography, statistics, economics, archaeology, ethnology, folk-lore, law, and education, are reviewed in this single volume. The list includes, of course, many books written and published in the United States and England. It is interesting to get this Canadian appraisal of works dealing with Canadian topics.

A memorial of Kishineff, consisting of reports, documents, and comments on the Jewish massacre of last year, has been prepared by Dr. Isidore Singer, managing editor of the "Jewish Encyclopedia," under the title "Russia at the Bar of the American People" (Funk & Wagnalls).

DR. ISIDORE SINGER.

The proceedings at the trials of the Kishineff rioters are included, with much other useful material which ought to go on record,—all except the "impossible" poem by Israel Davidson, which is given the front position.

Cyrus Adler has edited a mass of documents, reports, addresses, newspaper editorials, sermons, and other literature on the subject of Kishineff, and the Jewish Publication Society has brought it out in book form under the title "The Voice of America on Kishineff."

All who would estimate at its true value the new constructive movement in Ireland,—manifested in the organization of industries old and new, in the coöperative credit schemes, and in the creation of the new government department for the express purpose of fostering agriculture and other economic interests,—should read and digest Sir Horace Plunkett's "Ireland in the New Century" (Dutton). Sir Horace himself has been at the very center of these various activities; indeed, no one is better fitted, by virtue of intimate knowledge, to

write of the new Ireland. Our readers will recall an interesting interview with Sir Horace published in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for April, 1903, under the title "Hope for the Irish Farmer." In the present volume, the different projects outlined in that interview are described in detail. The industrial and educational problems of the country are clearly set forth. The writer declares that he believes in the new movements in Ireland, principally because they seem to exert a stimulating influence upon the moral fiber of the Irish people. One hesitates, however, to accept his indictment of that people for "a lack of moral courage, initiative, independence, and self-reliance."

SIR HORACE PLUNKETT.

BIOGRAPHY.

Last month we noticed at some length "The Man Roosevelt," by Mr. Francis E. Leupp. We had not then seen the completed volume by Mr. Jacob A. Riis,—"Theodore Roosevelt the Citizen" (the Outlook Company). Mr. Riis, like Mr. Leupp, is a personal friend of the President; like him, too, he avoids the method of the conventional biographer in his character-sketching. His book is, even more than Mr. Leupp's, a personal sketch. Those who look to it for an adequate appreciation of Mr. Roosevelt's public career are likely to be disappointed. The writer, on the other hand, has known a great deal about certain episodes in his hero's life,—notably the term of service as police commissioner in New York City, and also the period of the governorship. The accounts of those episodes here given bear the earmarks of intimate knowledge. Mr. Riis dedicates his book to the young men of America, and if it succeed in imparting to its youthful readers only a little of the author's fine enthusiasm for the knightly and the true in our modern American life it will not have been written in vain.

Cardinal Newman has been so long considered from the standpoint of a churchman that his literary eminence has been lost sight of. "But," says William Barry (in his book "Cardinal Newman"—one of the "Literary Lives" of the Scribners), "he was a man of letters equal to the greatest writers of prose his native country had brought forth. The Catholic reaction of the nineteenth century claims its place in literature, thanks to this incomparable talent. Side by side with the German mysticism of Carlyle, the devout liberalism of Tennyson, the lyric Utopias of Shelley, and the robust optimism of Browning, Newman is an English classic." This volume is illustrated with a dozen portraits of Cardinal Newman, besides other illustrations.

Mr. Rolfe Ogden's sketch of William H. Prescott in the "American Men of Letters" series (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) reminds us that no American historian has been so well entitled as Prescott to be numbered with the "men of letters" in the strictest sense. It is in reading the story of his career, made difficult by the partial loss of sight, that we realize the change that has

been wrought since Prescott's time in the spirit of our historical writing. When "Ferdinand and Isabella" and "The Conquest of Mexico" were composed and given to the world, their author was hailed, not as an investigator, but rather as a brilliant narrator. His masterpieces remain famous to this day as works of literature; as contributions to historical knowledge, their importance is only secondary. Prescott died in 1859, at the age of sixty-three, — easily first in the small group of New England historians whose work commanded attention beyond the sea because of the very excellence of its form.

WILLIAM H. PRESCOTT.

WORKS ON ART AND LITERATURE.

The second volume of "The History of American Art" (Macmillan), edited by John C. Van Dyke, is "The History of American Music," by Louis C. Elson, the author of "Our National Music," "Shakesperian Music," etc. This is really a monumental series, and Mr. Elson's contribution easily maintains the standard set by Lorado Taft in his history of American sculpture, the first volume. The series is handsomely illustrated, and very satisfactory typographically. Mr. Elson's views on the musical development of the United States are too well known to need elaboration here, but it is worth while noting that, in his chapter "Qualities and Defects of American Music," he attributes the solid

early development of music in this country to New England psalmody. He also praises the attainments of New York, Boston, Pittsburgh, Philadelphia, Cincinnati, and Chicago in classical and orchestral music. The musical courses in the universities and colleges of America, he says, "are beyond anything done in similar institutions abroad." In the matter of musical instruments, "we also compare favorably with European countries," he declares, "although we have no libraries of music comparable to those at Oxford, Cambridge, or the British Museum, the Bibliothèque Universelle, or the Conservatoire de Paris." The chief fault, he believes, of our musical system can be found "in the excess of piano-playing (there is too much of display or of money-getting in American musical striving), and we have a demon which broods over American music,—haste!"

LOUIS C. ELSON.

An interesting collection of reproductions of modern

art works has been brought out by the London Studio. It appears in eight parts, under the title "Representative Art of Our Time" (John Lane), and consists of original etchings and lithographs, also reproductions of oil and water colors, paintings, pastels, etc. The whole is edited by Charles Holme, and each part introduced by some account of the varied processes in the production of the illustrations. The prints have appeared from time to time in the Studio. Among the introductions, which will be of interest to art-lovers, are "The Modern Aspect of Wood Engraving;" "The Modern Aspect of Artistic Lithography," by Joseph Pennell; "The Future Development of Oil Painting," "The Value of Line Etching and Dry Point," and "The Pencil and the Pen as Instruments of Art."

A new edition, known as the Library Edition, of Kingsley's prose and poetic works has been issued in fourteen volumes by the J. F. Taylor Company. The edition is well printed, and appropriately illustrated on special paper.

A series of short stories and legends is the latest work from the Polish author, Henryk Sienkiewicz. This collection consists of five stories, entitled "Life and Death: A Hindu Legend," "Is He the Dearest One?" "A Legend of the Sea," "Crane," and "The Judgment of Peter and Paul on Olympus," and is translated by Jeremiah Curtin, under the general title "Life and Death" (Little, Brown). The book is illustrated with new photographs of the estate, in Russian Poland, which was given to the novelist by the Polish people on the occasion of the twenty-fifth anniversary of his literary work.

The latest issues of Elbert Hubbard's "Little Journey" series are those to the homes of English authors, and to the homes of famous musicians. The authors considered are Morris, Browning, Tennyson, Macaulay, Addison, Burns, Milton, Southey, Coleridge, Disraeli, and Byron; and the musicians, Wagner, Chopin, Mozart, Bach, Liszt, Mendelssohn, Beethoven, Handel, Verdi, Schumann, and Brahms. Each volume is well illustrated, and the typography (that of the Putnam's) is excellent.

There is a completeness of structure and a literary finish about Laura E. Richards' book of fables, "The Golden Windows" (Little, Brown), which is refreshing after the rather dreary didacticism of the average moralist.

SOCIOLOGY AND ECONOMICS.

"The Truth About the Trusts," by John Moody (New York: Moody Publishing Company, 35 Nassau Street), gives specific information concerning all the most important American combines. This information is necessarily confined pretty closely to the figures and statements given out by the corporations themselves, but this material is conveniently arranged, and is duplicated in no other single publication, so far as we are aware. Several interesting charts accompany the text. The graphic representation of the interrelations of the Morgan and Rockefeller interests in the railroad groups is especially striking.

An impartial and summary statement of the economies effected by modern trust organization, on the one hand, and of the evils resulting from monopoly, such as unreasonable prices and railroad discrimination, on the other, is contained in Mr. Gilbert H. Montague's "Trusts of To-Day" (McClure, Phillips & Co.). The author's method of treatment is expository, not critical. He tells the plain story of the growth of the trusts, and explains their reason for existence. Further

than that, the facts of the situation, as he sets them forth, must speak for themselves. The same author's little book on "The Rise and Progress of the Standard Oil Company" (Harpers), like the more complete accounts by the late Henry D. Lloyd and Miss Tarbell, is chiefly based on the reports of official investigating commissions. It may be said of Mr. Montague's work that no other writer has succeeded in so condensing or compressing the story of almost four decades of corporate warfare unparalleled in history.

Dr. Peter Roberts, author of "The Anthracite Coal Industry," has recently completed an elaborate study of "Anthracite Coal Communities" (Macmillan). This work includes a survey of the varied social, moral, intellectual, and economic interests of the twenty-six nationalities which make up the mining population of the Pennsylvania coal region. Many topics to which former students of conditions in the anthracite fields have given comparatively slight attention are here discussed at length. The nature of practical "politics" among the miners, the incentives to crime among the young, the hold of the liquor traffic on the men, the influence of schools and churches, and the home life of the families are among the subjects of which Dr. Roberts treats most fully. Notwithstanding the mass of evidence brought out by the coal-strike commission, the country is even yet poorly informed as to actual conditions in the anthracite district. While Dr. Roberts' former work communicated important facts regarding the economic basis of the mining communities, the present volume informs us more definitely in regard to the miners' social life.

In a volume entitled "The Negro Problem" (New York: James Pott & Co.), several representative negroes contribute papers dealing with the progress of the race in its various aspects. Chief among these contributions is Booker T. Washington's plea for industrial education, followed by an able argument to show the value of higher education to the negro race by Professor Du Bois. Other topics treated in this book are "The Disfranchisement of the Negro," by Charles W. Chesnut; "The Negro and the Law," by Wilford H. Smith; "The Characteristics of the Negro People," by H. T. Keating; "Representative American Negroes," by Paul Laurence Dunbar; and "The Negro's Place in American Life at the Present Day," by T. Thomas Fortune. The educated negro's views of his own prospects and his own needs at the present time are very eloquently set forth in these pages.

Dr. J. Shield Nicholson's "Elements of Political Economy" (Macmillan) is not a mere abridgment of the author's three-volume treatise on the principles of "the dismal science," although it is based on that well-known work. In the present volume it has been found necessary to omit much of the historical material which formed a characteristic feature of the larger work. Controversial matter is generally excluded. The book is admirably constructed to serve its primary purpose as a text-book.

ON RUSSIA AND JAPAN.

The literature of Russia grows apace; but, despite the number of new books, second editions of old and standard ones readily find a sale. Mr. Wirt Gerrare's "Greater Russia" (Macmillan) is now selling in its second edition. This is a study of the great empire of the Muscovite, but particularly of Siberia, "which is very different from the inert, barren, dismal country conven-

tionally described." There has been a great awakening in Russia. The people, debarred generally from active participation in politics, "have directed their energies to the commercial and industrial exploitation of their native land." Territorial expansion has taken Russia a great way toward the attainment of world-supremacy, which she regards as her destiny. Russia aiming at the overlordship of Asia, and even now locked in deadly embrace with the brightest of the Mongolians in contest for this supremacy,—this is the picture which Mr. Gerrare aims to present. He does more than merely record impressions. He adds suggestive comment, and gives many anecdotes to convey an idea of the habits and customs of the many different races of the empire. One really does get a better idea of Siberian life from the anecdotes given in this book than from many pages of dry description. The illustrations are from photographs taken by the author. The chapters "In Disguise Through Manchuria" and "Russia's Manifest Destiny" make exceedingly interesting reading at the present juncture.

What a wonder-loving people the Japanese are,—if we can believe Lafcadio Hearn's fairy tales! The latest book of this original man with a beautiful literary style is entitled "Kwaidon" (Houghton). It is a collection of "stories and studies of strange things," all told with that exquisite language which is the author's own, and all

LAFCADIO HEARN.

pervaded by the dreamy charm of the Orient, and a sort of creepy familiarity with the under-world. Mr. Hearn, it will be remembered, was lecturer on English literature in the Imperial University of Tokio, Japan, for seven years, and thoroughly understands his *milieu*.

EMINENT FOREIGNERS ON AMERICAN LIFE.

It would be useless to deny the fact that Americans are still very much interested in what the rest of the world, particularly famous foreigners, think of us and our civilization, and probably many citizens of these United States will like to know the opinions of Sir Philip Burne-Jones, Bart., on Americans and American institutions. This English artist spent nearly a year in this country before he succumbed to the temptation to write a book; but he finally yielded, and "Dollars and Democracy" (Appletons) is the result,—a genial, kindly, sensible, and occasionally even humorous, summing up of his impressions. It would not be quite fair to tell all that Sir Philip does think of us. Suffice it to say that he does not like our "rush," our "400," the art of our streets, or our "yellow press." But he does consider us hospitable, business-like, and eminently sensible. He has some nice things to say about Harvard, and will evidently never forget the hospitality he received while in Boston.

A year or so ago, a famous Frenchman, Hughes Le Roux, made an extended lecture tour in the United States, setting forth, in a style almost as entertaining as that of the late Max O'Rell, the difference between

the American and the French point of view with regard to the conduct of business and love, pointing out the dangers, as he sees them, in our customs and views. His impressions and observations have been published in a volume under the title "Business and Love" (Dodd, Mead). This study of the relation between the modern man and the modern woman in the family, in marriage, and in society makes suggestive reading.

WORKS OF REFERENCE.

Such articles as those entitled "Philippine Islands," "Russia," "Spanish-American War," and "United States," occurring in the last four volumes of the "New International Encyclopedia" (Dodd, Mead & Co.),—articles that could not possibly have been written ten years ago,—remind us of the great advantage of having the "newest" reference books to consult on all points involving late developments in history and politics, not to speak of science and art. The "New International" is stocked with the freshest data on all subjects. In its seventeen clearly printed volumes are to be found articles on every conceivable topic that the busy man or woman is likely to seek light on, and all this information, valuable as much of it is, has been condensed and compressed to a remarkable degree. In this work, only the kernel of the wheat is preserved. The editors are to be congratulated on the successful completion of their task.

Each succeeding volume of the "Jewish Encyclopedia" (Funk & Wagnalls Company) affords new proofs of the distinctive service rendered by this unique work. In the fifth volume, for example, one finds a valuable discussion of the subject of freemasonry, in its relations to Judaism; a full and scholarly exposition of the Jewish attitude toward "Gentiles;" an erudite historical sketch of the progress of the Jewish race in England; a similar *résumé* of Jewish progress in France; and a great number of articles dealing with strictly Hebraic topics. One might look in vain elsewhere for anything like so satisfactory a treatment, in the English language, of these and kindred themes. If the encyclopedia does nothing else, it is at least giving to the English-speaking world a presentation of the world's history from the point of view of modern Judaism.

Under the title "Social Progress," Dr. Josiah Strong has compiled a useful year-book (Baker & Taylor Company) covering the fields of economic, industrial, social, and religious statistics, and virtually supplementing the excellent "Encyclopedia of Social Reform," edited by W. D. P. Bliss. The present volume gives statistics for the year 1903, and it is promised that hereafter the book will be issued annually in March. Among the special topics treated are child labor, the housing problem, public ownership, the hours of work, wages, and tax reform. No other annual publication exhibits so clearly the progress of social-reform movements in this country. Dr. Strong's gift for the interpretation of statistics has been demonstrated in previous books and in many lectures and discourses, so that there is a wide welcome awaiting this new year-book of his, and doubtless it will in due time take its place as a fixed institution, valuable for reference purposes to many classes of people throughout the country.

In the "Municipal Year Book of the United Kingdom" for 1894 (London: Edward Lloyd, Limited), the work of each municipal corporation is summarized separately, while the statistical information is arranged in

a series of special sections, under such heads as "Water Supply," "Gas Supply," "Tramways," "Electricity Supply," "Housing of the Working Classes," "Markets," "Telephones," "Education," "Libraries," "Refuse and Sewage Disposal," etc. Thus, the book covers practically the whole field of British municipal enterprise. American students can find in this annual publication statistical data which would otherwise have to be sought in the official records of hundreds of municipalities, and which could not possibly be secured without a special journey to the British Isles.

NEW VOLUMES OF POEMS AND NEW EDITIONS.

A poem for every day in the year,—that is, either written on that day or commemorating an event which happened on that day,—a collection of such poems, under the general title "Every Day in the Year" (Dodd, Mead), has been made by James L. and Mary K. Ford. It is really a useful compilation for the curious student of history and the after-dinner speaker, both of whom may be glad to know, for example, that on December 14 George Washington died, in 1799, Prince Albert in 1861, and Professor Agassiz in 1873, and to have at command poems suitable to the occasion.

Some of the choicest sonnets of the ages have been collected and printed in dainty typographical form by S. B. Herrick, under the title "A Century of Sonnets" (H. R. Russell). A discriminating historical introduction prepares the reader for the first selection, which is Wordsworth's "Scorn Not the Sonnet."

A collection of Algonquin poems, translated metrically by Charles Godfrey Leland and John Dyneley Print, is published under the title "Kuloskop, the Master" (Funk & Wagnalls). "Kuloskop" seems to have been a sort of Indian Ulysses who had many interesting and exciting adventures. He is identified with the several semi-godlike personages of North American Indian mythology. The translators have rendered the poems from the original of the Micmac, Passamaquoddy, and Penobscot Indians. The poems are chiefly legends relating to the demigod Kuloskop, who is lord of man and beast, and they embody Indian lore about animals, nature, the hunt, love, and witchcraft.

Two books of poems which, it must be confessed, demand attention more from the name of their author than from the quality of their contents are "A Tale of True Love and Other Poems" and "Flodden Field: A Tragedy" (Harpers), by Alfred Austin, poet-laureate of England. The first volume contains Mr. Austin's well-known verses "To Robert Louis Stevenson," "A Border Burn," and "The Passing of the Century." The laureate himself writes the preface to the collection, in which he pays some graceful compliments to the American people. "Flodden Field" is a three-act drama full of the romance and heroism of the battle of Flodden. It is the story of a beautiful woman fascinating and betraying one leader into the hands of another.

Prof. George F. Woodberry as a poet is not a very familiar figure to book-lovers, but the collection of his poems just issued (Macmillan) contains most of his best magazine work, some of which, as, for example, "Divine Awe" and "On a Portrait of Columbus," have the real poetic fire.

Paul Heyse's much talked of drama, "Mary of Magdala," has been translated from the German and freely adapted into English verse by William Winter (Macmillan). This five-act piece is an attempt to reproduce

the circumstances and atmosphere that existed before the establishment of Christianity, at a time when Jesus Christ (around whom, although he is not introduced, the action circulates) was viewed exclusively as a man, and had not yet, in the eyes of many, been invested with a sacred character.

A modest but comprehensive collection of poems by Southern poets, under the title "Poets of the South" (American Book Company), has been edited and annotated by Dr. F. V. N. Painter, of Roanoke College. Biographical sketches accompany the selections.

Although there are many irregularities and some unevenness in Ernest Crosby's verses, the collection "Swords and Plowshares" (Funk & Wagnalls) contains some passages which have almost the vigor of Whitman, and others quite the descriptive power of Edward Carpenter. Mr. Carpenter's Tolstoyan principles are very evident in this volume, which is full of the hatred of war and the love of nature.

There has been much discussion and criticism of Thomas Hardy's drama "The Dynasts" (Macmillan). This drama of the Napoleonic wars, in nineteen acts and one hundred and thirty scenes, is meant, so Mr. Hardy tells us, to be read, not to be played. It is a sort of epoch of "the great historic calamity, or clash of different peoples, artificially brought about some hundred years ago." Most of the critics have been very severe in their judgment. To the writer, the effort seems utterly unworthy of Mr. Hardy's great reputation.

The features of interest in the Cambridge Edition of Pope's poems (Houghton, Mifflin) are the careful biographical sketch, the notes, and the neat binding. The poems are arranged in chronological order, and the translations from Homer are included. This volume of "The Cambridge Edition of the Poets" is edited by Henry M. Boynton.

The life and poems of Freneau have at last been issued in satisfactory form. A two-volume edition, edited by Fred Louis Pattee, author of "A History of American Literature," has been issued by the Princeton University Library. Freneau's life and writings have been much misunderstood. Though Washington called him "that rascal Freneau," Jefferson and Madison pronounced him a man of genius, and Adams admitted him to have been the leading element in his own defeat. This edition is satisfactorily printed, and historical notes add to the scholarly value of the collection.

"The Poets of Transcendentalism" (Houghton) is the title of an anthology of the poems of Emerson, Lowell, Alcott, Thoreau, Margaret Fuller, Channing, Curtis, Higginson, Helen Hunt Jackson, Edward Rowland Sill, Julia Ward Howe, and others, edited by George Willis Cooke. This is a collection of the best verses produced during a most extraordinary period of American literature. It is really a record of the transcendental movement, that agitation of inquiry and revolt which was so distinctively American. An introduction and biographical notes add to the value of these poems.

Tennyson saw fit to suppress quite a number of his youthful poetical efforts because, as he said, they were "rubbish shot from my full finished cantos." The great laureate was subjected to very little hostile criticism during his life, and, while it is perhaps not kind to give to the world at this late day efforts which he himself considered unworthy, yet it is to be presumed that the judgment of history on the poet's work as a whole will be benefited by such a volume as "Tenny-

son's Suppressed Poems" (Harpers), edited and annotated by J. C. Thomson, editor of the bibliography of Charles Dickens. Most of these poems have been dug up from the anonymous columns of old newspapers. The editor believes that he is doing the poet a service by showing the development of his art from the comparatively feeble efforts of his youth.

Two volumes of poems by William Watson come from the press of John Lane. A handy little collection of "Selected Poems by William Watson" contains all of the poet's better-known verses, including "England My Mother," "The World in Armour," "Shelley's Centenary," and "The Unknown God." "For England—Poems Written During Estrangement," contains the verses written by Mr. Watson on the South African war. These originally appeared in the London *Review* and in newspapers; among them is the famous one "For England," which gives the title to the collection.

It is a pleasure to mention an attractive volume of poems by Miguel Balaños Cacho, a Mexican poet of reputation. The volume, which is published by the library of the city of Oaxaca, in the State of Chihuahua, is well illustrated, and is printed rather surprisingly in six different-colored inks.

Just at this time, those who are interested in Oriental literature will be glad to know that the T'ao Teh King, the philosophy of L'ao Tszé, the Chinese sage (604-504 B.C.), has been translated and rendered into metrical English. Dr. I. W. Heysinger has made fairly satisfactory English verses out of the philosophy, and has entitled the volume "The Light of China" (Research Publishing Company).

Mr. Bliss Carman's best later verse is collected in a volume entitled "From the Green Book of the Bards," which is the second volume of the "Pipes of Pan" series (L. C. Page). This collection deals with "out-of-doors, budding trees, calling birds, opening flowers, fragrant winds, and purple, rainy distances."

So little German dramatic poetry appears in English that Edith Wharton's translation of "The Joy of Living" (Scribners), by Hermann Sudermann, is worth knowing. "The Joy of Living" (*Es Lebe das Leben*) is a play in five acts dealing with political and social life in Berlin in "about 1899." Sudermann's dialogue is more concise than that of many other German dramatists, and so the translator has succeeded in making a more accurately vital rendering than is usually possible with the long, heavy German sentence.

ESSAYS AND MISCELLANY.

Charles Wagner, the author of "The Simple Life," of which President Roosevelt said it should be used as a tract throughout the country, has written another book, entitled "By the Fireside" (McClure, Phillips), which he aims to make a "gospel of love, sympathy, and kindness for brothers and sisters, husbands and wives, parents and children. The family life, he believes, has suffered "grave deterioration." But since the ties of blood are the things that endure, he thinks it is about time these "sacred and immortal impulses were emphasized."

We are doing everything in this rushing, rapid age of ours, even (paradoxical as it may seem) considering how we may live longer and more slowly. An interesting volume, entitled "The Art of Living Long," has just been issued (Milwaukee: William F. Butler), which is a new and rearranged English version of the treatise "The Temperate Life," by Louis Cornaro, the

famous Venetian centenarian. "The Temperate Life" has been a standard work in many languages for a century. This volume contains a new translation, supplemented by essays on the proper conduct of life by Joseph Addison, Lord Bacon, and Sir William Temple.

Those who have never been quite sure just what Friedrich Nietzsche meant by his philosophical writings will not have the atmosphere cleared for them

LOUIS CORNARO.

by Johanna Volz's translation of "The Dawn of the Day" (Macmillan). What, for example, does the following mean? "Illness implies an untimely approach of old age, of ugliness, of pessimistic views, which fall under the same cognizances."

"The Bending of the Twig," by Walter Russell (Dodd, Mead), is a very handsomely illustrated study of childhood, the purport of which is given in the dedication as "not to tell 'grown-ups' how to mold the lives of the little ones, but how the little ones mold the lives of the 'grown-ups.'" The pictures and the text are both by the author.

Clara Morris wields an effective pen, and, with the background of her rich and varied experience, really makes an entertaining story-writer. The "Trouble Woman" (Funk & Wagnalls) is a pathetic tale, illustrating that the true way to find consolation for one's own troubles is to consider others', and to lend a helping hand.

Dr. Alexander Nicholas De Menil, of St. Louis, has compiled a history of "The Literature of the Louisiana Territory" (the St. Louis News Company). The volume consists of brief descriptive and biographical statements about authors who were born or lived in the States carved out of the Louisiana Purchase, with representative extracts from their works. Among the writers consid-

ered are Hamlin Garland, Lafcadio Hearn, Winston Churchill, "Bill Nye," Jessie Benton Fremont, Clara Erskine Waters, Kate Field, Ignatius Donnelly, George W. Cable, and others.

William Ellery Channing's "Discourses on War" have been reprinted in a unique volume, with an introduction by Edwin D. Mead (Boston: Ginn & Co.). Channing, it will be recalled, was one of the founders of the Massachusetts Peace Society, the first influential organization of the kind in the world. He was an earnest worker for the cause of peace throughout his life.

"It is possible for a woman to retain the amorous affection of a man for many years,—if he only sees her for the two best hours out of each twenty-four." This bit of wisdom is from "The Damsel and the Sage" (Harpers), which is subheaded "A Woman's Whimies," by Elinor Glyn, who has made a very clever collection of philosophical epigrams and saws.

A FEW NATURE BOOKS.

A beautifully illustrated volume on trees, entitled "Getting Acquainted with the Trees," by J. Horace McFarland, with pictures by the author, has been issued by the Outlook Company, consisting of a number of illustrated articles which have already appeared in the magazine. Mr. McFarland is an expert on tree photography, and joins to this a sincere love of nature. His purpose in this book, he says, is "to pass on some of the benefit that has come into my own life from this awakened interest in the trees provided by the Creator for the resting of tired brains and the healing of ruffled spirits."

"The American Horticultural Manual," Part II. "Systematic Pomology," containing descriptions of the leading varieties of the orchard fruits, grapes, small fruits, sub-tropical fruits, and the nuts of the United States and Canada, is the work of J. L. Budd, professor of horticulture in the Iowa State College, and is published by John Wiley. It is illustrated.

A new text-book on botany has just come from the pen of Dr. George James Pierce, associate professor of plant physiology in Leland Stanford University. In this book, "A Text-Book of Plant Physiology" (Holt), Dr. Pierce aims "to present the main facts of plant physiology and the saner hypotheses regarding them, striving to express safe views . . . and trying to avoid giving the impression that the science or any part of it has reached ultimate knowledge and final conclusions."

"Mr. Chupes and Miss Jenny" (Baker, Taylor), is the heart and home story of two robins. It originally appeared as a serial in *Our Animal Friends*, and its author, Esie Bigwell, dedicates it to the Audubon societies of the United States.

Another new bird book, by Clarence Hawkes, is "The Little Foresters" (Crowell), well illustrated and entertainingly written.



THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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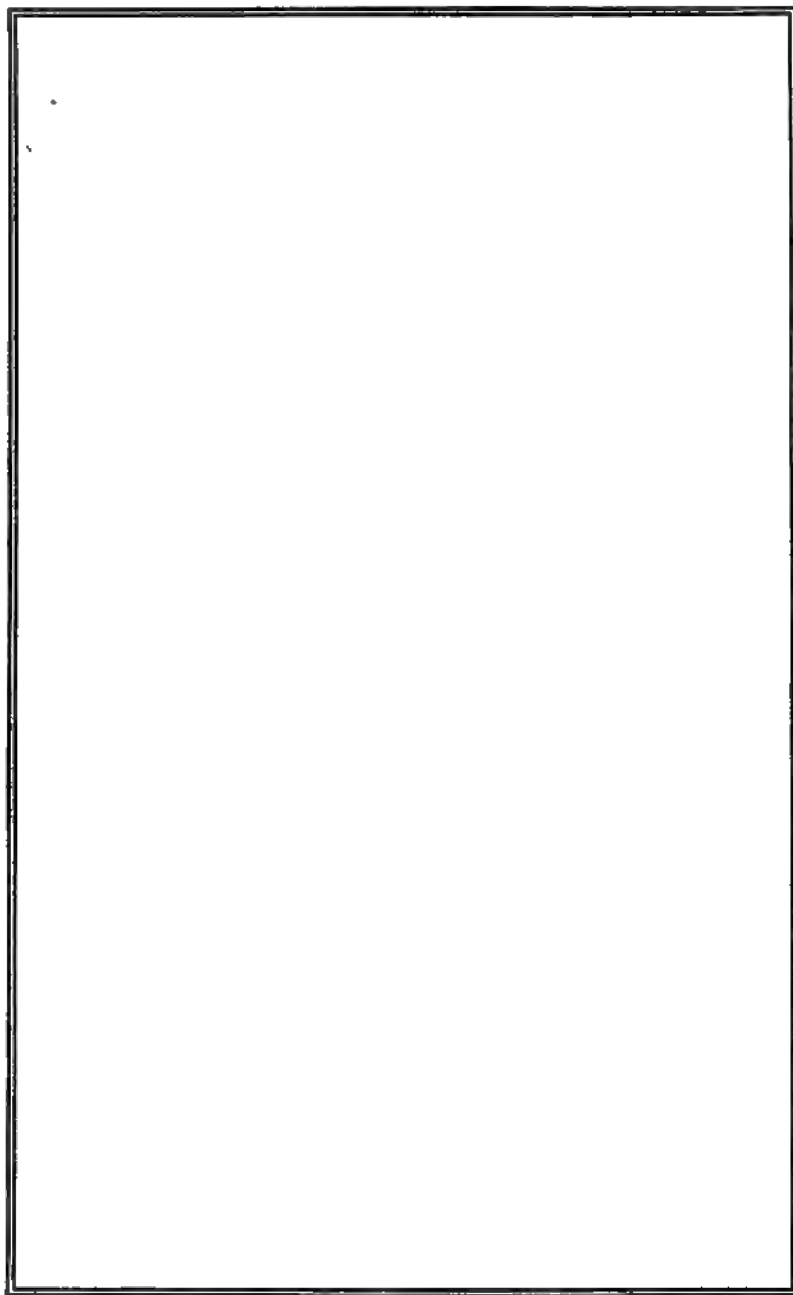
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HIS IMPERIAL MAJESTY THE EMPEROR OF JAPAN.

(Who has the full confidence and support of his people in the war with Russia and has proven himself one of the wisest and most progressive of modern rulers.)

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY

Review of Reviews.

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No. 6.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*The
Approaching
Presidential
Contest.*

The month of May witnessed political activity in various States and localities, but did not contribute much material for the 1904 chapter that must in due time be added to the history of American Presidential contests. Republican harmony—on the larger stage—remained unbroken, and the adjustment of details by general agreement seemed to indicate a convention at Chicago that would have nothing to do but ratify decisions already made and listen to speeches of eulogy and congratulation. Early in the month, Speaker Cannon was so much talked about as a desirable candidate for the Vice-Presidency that he resorted to the defensive expedient of declaring that he would not accept a nomination under any conditions whatsoever. If the Republicans have a majority in the next Congress, Mr. Cannon will be reelected as Speaker; and he is entirely justified in feeling that his personal preference should be respected by every one, quite as fully as President Roosevelt was justified four years ago in thinking that his preference for re-nomination at the head of the New York State ticket ought to have been accepted as conclusive.

*Roosevelt's
"Running
Mate."*

Mr. Cannon would be a popular candidate; and if the convention believes his presence on the national ticket necessary to carry his own State of Illinois, it may disregard his wishes and treat him as Mr. Roosevelt was treated at Philadelphia. But this is not regarded as likely to happen. The name of another veteran Illinois Congressman, when mentioned last month, met with widespread favor. The Hon. Robert R. Hitt has served in the House for twenty years or more, and for a number of years past he has been chairman of the House Committee on Foreign Affairs. He is justly held in very high esteem for his qualities as a man and a citizen, no less than for his services and accomplishments as a diplomat, legislator, and statesman. Without seek-

HON. ROBERT R. HITT, OF ILLINOIS.

(A candidate for the Vice-Presidency.)

ing the place in rivalry with any one else, Mr. Hitt had allowed it to be known last month that he would appreciate the honor of nomination to the office of Vice-President and would willingly accept. Mr. Hitt was seventy years old in January. He was born in Ohio, but has lived in Illinois since he was three years old. He received a good education, and became a newspaper writer, being one of the first competent shorthand reporters in this country. His skill as a shorthand writer attached him to Lincoln, whom he accompanied through the exciting period of the debates with Douglas. For a number of years

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HON. JOSEPH G. CANNON, SPEAKER OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES, AND HIS TWO GRANDCHILDREN.

(Mr. Cannon was prominent last month as chairman of the protracted State Republican convention of Illinois, and has been selected as permanent chairman of the national convention.)

he was connected with Chicago newspapers, and he was afterward at Washington as private secretary of Indiana's great Senator, Oliver P. Morton. In 1874, he was appointed secretary of legation at Paris, a position which he held for more than six years, until Mr. Blaine, as Secretary of State, selected him as First Assistant Secretary, in 1881. The following year, however, he was elected to Congress, and he has represented his district ever since.

*Mr. Hitt's
Excellent
Qualities.*

The country has a right to expect that both great parties will nominate for the Vice-Presidency men fully qualified for the office of President. The Vice-Presidency has no other use or meaning; and the country has had abundant illustration of the importance of selecting Vice-Presidents with care and wisdom. Mr. Hitt's selection would reflect honor upon the Republican party and strengthen it with the country. From the point

of view of campaign tactics, furthermore, Mr. Hitt's selection would probably be fortunate, since it would be likely to aid the party in the State of Illinois, where there are always many elements of political uncertainty, and where the Republican party has of late been more or less weakened by factional and personal differences. Mr. Hitt has not been involved in these Illinois factional disputes, as was shown last month when a very stormy and protracted State convention heartily and unanimously indorsed him for the Vice-Presidency.

*The
Illinois
Convention.*

The administration of the Hon. Richard Yates as governor of Illinois has not given universal satisfaction, and he was well aware, many months ago, that his desire for renomination would be opposed by the supporters of other very active candidates. The State convention met at Springfield on Thursday, May 12, and adjourned on the 20th. There was no difficulty about the adoption of a platform, the indorsement of President Roosevelt, and the selection, as delegates-at-large to the national convention, of Senators Cullom and Hopkins, Speaker Cannon, and Governor Yates. But a long and energetic previous canvass had secured compact bodies of supporters for several different candidates for the governorship, and they stuck to their men with remarkable persistence. The convention enjoyed the services of Speaker Cannon as its chairman, and its many scenes of disorder would possibly have developed beyond all control with a less experienced and popular presiding officer. Besides Governor Yates, the following candidates were formally presented to the convention before the balloting began: State Attorney Deneen; Attorney-General Hamlin; Col. Frank O. Lowden, of Chicago; Hon. Vespasian War-

COL. FRANK O. LOWDEN, OF CHICAGO.

ner, and Hon. L. Y. Sherman. The convention was made up of about fifteen hundred delegates, of whom approximately five hundred were for Governor Yates and about four hundred each for Lowden and Deneen, the remaining votes being scattered among other candidates.

*The
Deadlock
Unbroken.*

On Friday, May 20, the convention took its fifty eighth ballot for the governorship candidates, and then by unanimous agreement adjourned to assemble again on the afternoon of May 31. On this fifty-eighth test, the candidates stood almost exactly as they did on the first ballot, the last

Governor Yates.

Senator Cullom.

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Speaker Cannon.

Senator Hopkins.

THE ILLINOIS DELEGATES-AT-LARGE TO THE REPUBLICAN NATIONAL CONVENTION.



Governor Durbin.

Senator Fairbanks.

Senator Beveridge.

State Chairman Goodrich.

INDIANA'S DELEGATES-AT-LARGE TO THE REPUBLICAN NATIONAL CONVENTION.

figures being,—Yates, 483; Lowden, 392½; De-
neen, 385½; Hamlin, 113; Warner, 53; Sher-
man, 46; Pierce, 29. The deadlock was due to
the remarkable attitude of Governor Yates, who
ought to have withdrawn when he found that
the convention was determined not to indorse
his administration. Of the other candidates,
Colonel Lowden possesses perhaps the greatest
elements of availability. The convention was
noteworthy for its sustained good temper.

*Indiana
Republican
Harmony.*

The Indiana Republicans had held
their convention on April 26 and 27,
and had shown a harmony that could
only be brought about by very good manage-
ment. President Roosevelt was warmly indorsed,
and the four delegates-at-large to the national
convention were instructed to support him.
These four are Senators Fairbanks and Bever-
idge, Governor Durbin, and State Chairman
Goodrich. Mr. Beveridge was indorsed for
another term in the Senate with an enthusiasm
that shows the country how firm a hold he has
won in the regard of the people of his own
State. The nominee for the governorship is
the Hon. J. Frank Hanly, of Lafayette. Mr.
Hanly has the reputation of being a remarkable
organizer and campaigner, with forcible person-
al qualities. He is opposed by organized labor on
account of his activity in securing certain legis-
lation regarded by the trade-unions as adverse
to their interests. Indiana is always made hard
fighting ground in Presidential years, but Re-
publican managers there like Mr. Beveridge
are confident that the State will give an unpre-
cedented majority for Roosevelt.

*Ditto
in Ohio
and Iowa.*

A number of Republican conventions
in important States were held on
May 18. The Ohio convention was
under the full control of the gentlemen who
have, as a syndicate, assumed the successorship
to the late Senator Hanna. The Forsaker wing
of the party was in a helpless minority, but
Senator Foraker was the foremost personal fig-
ure in the convention, made the most eloquent
speech, and goes to the national convention as
one of the delegates-at-large with Governor Her-
rick, Mr. George B. Cox, the Cincinnati boss,
and Senator Dick. The convention was per-
functory, but was harmonious in its indorsement

HON. J. FRANK HANLY.

(Republican nominee for governor of Indiana.)

Governor Herrick.

Senator Dick.

George B. Cox.

Senator Foraker.

OHIO'S DELEGATES-AT-LARGE TO THE REPUBLICAN NATIONAL CONVENTION.

of President Roosevelt, and entirely orthodox in its platform. The Iowa Republicans, on the same date, held their convention, attended by all the distinguished Hawkeye party leaders, and dominated by an element working in accord with a political manager named Blythe, who is in opposition to Gov. A. B. Cummins. The country is asked to believe that Governor Cummins' unpardonable sin is the expression of certain mild and obviously truthful views to the effect that President McKinley was quite right in thinking that the time had come for tariff-modification in the direction of reciprocity. Governor Cummins' real offense, perhaps, lies in his being a man of much ability and force of character, with great legal knowledge, rare training for public service, and, worst of all, an undisguised ambition for high office. Governor Cummins has always been an enthusiastic Roosevelt supporter, while Mr. Blythe is reputed to have acted, in Iowa, as the chief agent of the opponents of Roosevelt for as long a time as

there was any possible chance of doing damage to the President's cause. On the tariff question, Governor Cummins' views are those sensible and progressive ones that, whether avowed or not this year, the Republican party must adopt and act upon in the Congressional elections two years hence or go down to humiliating defeat. Fortunately, the wisdom of great leaders like Senator Allison restrained the momentary majority in the Iowa convention, controversy was avoided, and Governor Cummins was properly named as one of the delegates-at-large to the national convention, with Senators Allison and Dolliver, and, as a fourth member, the victorious Mr. Blythe. The effort to misrepresent Governor Cummins' position on the tariff question has been to some extent successful, but it will not be permanently effective. The Michigan and Wisconsin conventions were also held on May 18, and in Michigan the work of naming delegates and adopting a platform was accomplished quickly and without sensational in-



Senator Dolliver.

Secretary L. M. Shaw.

Senator Allison.

Governor Cummins.

IOWA'S FOREMOST REPUBLICANS NOW IN OFFICIAL LIFE.

cidents, President Roosevelt being indorsed with enthusiasm, and an orthodox Republican platform being adopted in which the tariff and reciprocity policies of Blaine and McKinley were named as living doctrines.

A Split in Wisconsin.

The Wisconsin Republicans were less fortunate. Factional differences which in Ohio and Iowa had been smoothed over by mutual concessions split the convention at Madison on the 18th, and the two halves assembled separately on the 19th, each claiming to

a result of which five hundred and seventy-five La Follette delegates were seated, and only four hundred and eighty-five of the other wing. If there had been nothing at stake except the sending of delegates to the national convention, a compromise would have been easy to arrange. But an entire State ticket was to be nominated, with Governor La Follette as a candidate for a third term. While in other respects acting as two complete and opposing conventions in their work of the 19th, they named identical lists of Presidential electors. Thus, President Roosevelt will poll the full strength of both Republican tickets; yet such a split is always unfortunate in a Presidential year, since it must inevitably give the State to the opposition party as respects State and local offices, and is likely also to affect adversely the vote for Presidential electors. Governor La Follette's convention unanimously made him its nominee for a third term, and rounded out a State ticket with his supporters, adopting a platform and naming delegates-at-large to the national convention. The bolting convention had in it most of the State's distinguished leaders, speeches being made by Senators Spooner and Quarles, and Representative Babcock, chairman of the National Congressional Republican Committee. The Hon. S. A. Cook was nominated for governor by acclamation, and both Senators were named as delegates-at-large to Chicago. The conventions vied with each other in loyalty to President Roosevelt.

GOV. ROBERT M. LA FOLLETTE, OF WISCONSIN.
(Nominee for a third term on one of the rival Republican tickets.)

be the legitimate body. For a number of years there has been bitter discord between the wing of the party led by Governor La Follette, which has advocated radical taxation reforms and changes in methods of nomination, and the conservative wing of the party, to which Senators Spooner and Quarles and Postmaster-General Payne adhere. The radical wing has been strong enough to compel the reelection of Governor La Follette and to acquire control of the party machinery. But the division between the factions has been dangerously even, and contesting delegates came to Madison in such numbers that the control of the convention depended entirely upon the recognition of credentials. The La Follette central committee were charged with ruthlessly excluding the contestants of the other faction, as

HON. S. A. COOK.
(The "Stalwart" Republican nominee for governor of Wisconsin.)

Senator Kean.

Senator Dryden.

Governor Murphy.

Hon. David Baird.

NEW JERSEY'S DELEGATES-AT-LARGE TO THE REPUBLICAN NATIONAL CONVENTION.

*The
Nebraska
Convention.*

The Nebraska Republicans, on May 18, came forward with a favorite son in the person of the Hon. John L. Webster, whom they indorsed as a Vice-Presidential candidate. Their indorsement of President Roosevelt was hearty and unqualified. According to Nebraska custom, the convention named a candidate for the United States Senate. They agreed upon Congressman Elmer J. Burkett, of Lincoln, who, in case of the election of a Republican legislature, will be promoted to the seat in the Senate now held by Charles H. Dietrich. The present governor, the Hon. John H. Mickey, was renominated for the same office.

*Some
Eastern
Republicans.*

The States of Connecticut and New Jersey, like the great State of New York, which they adjoin, are always regarded as critical in Presidential campaigns, and of late have been counted necessary to Democratic success. The Republicans of New Jersey showed great enthusiasm for President Roosevelt in their convention of May 10, and they are expressing much confidence in their ability to give him a large majority. They chose as their delegates-at-large to the Chicago convention United States Senators Kean and Dryden, Gov. Franklin Murphy, and the Hon. David Baird. The Connecticut convention, held on the same day as that of New

Jersey, showed a like heartiness in its indorsement of the President, and the platform identified his administration with the prosperity and high prestige of the country. Mr. Charles S. Mellen, president of the New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad system, is one of the Connecticut delegates to the national convention. The Maryland convention was held under the chairmanship of Senator McComas, and exhibited the prevailing Republican harmony. The new Maryland arrangements virtually disfranchising the negro

voters will probably be found to have made the State safely Democratic, under Senator Gorman's direction. In spite, however, of the race issue, President Roosevelt is popular in all the border States, from Maryland and Delaware to Missouri, and will make a strong run. The negro votes in the Northern States will be almost unanimous in his

MR. WINSTON CHURCHILL,
OF NEW HAMPSHIRE.

support. Among the delegates from New Hampshire is to be noted the name of Mr. Winston Churchill. His new novel, "The Crossing," third in his great historical series, has just reached the market. It is a good thing when men like Churchill go into politics. Among the New York delegates will be found President Butler, of Columbia University, who, like President Roosevelt, sat in the famous convention of 1884.

MR. CHARLES S. MELLEN, OF
CONNECTICUT.

HON. ELIHU ROOT, OF NEW YORK.—FROM A NEW PHOTOGRAPH.

(Mr. Root is to be temporary chairman of the Republican national convention, and is much wanted by New York Republicans as their candidate for governor.)

*The
State
Platforms.*

There is one thing very noticeable indeed in the situation as disclosed in the various Republican State conventions, and that is the definite, confident, and rather aggressive tone of the platforms adopted. They invite the country to give the Republican party another four years' lease of power on the strength of its record during the McKinley and Roosevelt administrations. They demand the retention of the protective policy; and while not pledging themselves to a maintenance of the Dingley schedules, they express no sense whatever of a serious need of any sort of tariff-revision. They point to the unprecedented prosper-

ity that the country has enjoyed for some years as associated closely and essentially with national Republican measures, notably the settling of the money question and the substitution of the Dingley for the Wilson tariff. While approving of the measure of reciprocity established with Cuba, they do not advocate any general extension of reciprocal trade relations. In short, they stand upon the party's record and achievements, and expect to be trusted to meet further problems as they present themselves. In their general tone and statements, the Republican platforms throughout the country show an exceptional degree of similarity to one another. It is expected

that the platform adopted by the national convention at Chicago will be based upon a draught provided by Senator Lodge, of Massachusetts, who will be chairman of the committee on resolutions, and who was the author of the State platform adopted by the Massachusetts Republicans in April, and noted by us last month.

It is now a matter of common consent among all Republicans that the Hon. Elihu Root, of New York, is to be temporary chairman of the national convention, and in that capacity is to make the opening speech, which is always regarded as the chief oratorical effort of a national convention and becomes a campaign document of authoritative rank. With Mr. Root serving in this capacity, Speaker Cannon acting as permanent chairman, and Senator Lodge presenting the platform, it is plain that the utterances and general spirit of the convention will be in keeping with its action in nominating President Roosevelt. Further than this, there was a current report last month that the reorganization of the Republican National Committee would result in the selection of the Hon. George B. Cortelyou as its chairman, thus making him chief manager of President Roosevelt's campaign. Mr. Cortelyou is now a member of the President's cabinet, holding the portfolio of the Department of Commerce and Labor, and before that department was established he was Secretary to the President.

Mr. Cortelyou and the Campaign. His acceptance of the position of chairman of the National Committee would, of course, make it necessary for him to resign his present office, and it is rumored that in such a case he might be succeeded by the Hon. James R. Garfield, now at the head of the Bureau of Corporations, which

HON. GEORGE B. CORTELYOU, SECRETARY OF COMMERCE.
(Who is expected to serve as chairman of the National Committee and manage the Republican campaign.)

was created by law as a branch of the new Department of Commerce, or else by ex-Governor Crane, of Massachusetts. Whether or not Mr. Cortelyou is to manage the campaign this year, it would be highly appropriate that a man of his type and character should be selected. He is a good organizer and administrator, is a man of conscience and conviction, and would insist upon a very energetic campaign upon open, straightforward, and legitimate lines. There is a large amount of necessary work to be done by

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Mr. Everett C. Benton.

Hon. John D. Long.

Ex-Governor Crane.

Senator Lodge.

THE MASSACHUSETTS DELEGATES-AT-LARGE TO THE REPUBLICAN NATIONAL CONVENTION.

Hearst's candidacy who distrust the influences that have created, developed, and dominated the so-called "Parker boom" and would greatly prefer a candidate whose nomination could be shown to have been independent of the planning and support of the great trusts and corporations. The Massachusetts Democrats, in their convention at Boston, on April 21, instructed their representatives at St. Louis to support the Hon. Richard Olney, who was Secretary of State in Mr. Cleveland's last administration and is held in great respect throughout the country. The Hearst advocates were led by the Hon. George Fred Williams, whose earlier hopes of success were completely frustrated, the Olney supporters having considerably more than two-thirds of the convention behind them. The delegates-at-large to St. Louis will be Mayor Patrick A. Collins, of Boston; the Hon. William A. Gaston, former Democratic candidate for governor; the Hon. John R. Thayer, of Worcester, and the Hon. William L. Douglas, of Brockton. In case of a failure to reach an agreement on Judge Parker, at St. Louis, it is by no means impossible that the Massachusetts men may succeed in securing the nomination of Mr. Olney, although such an outcome is quite improbable.

HON. RICHARD OLNEY.

(Named by Massachusetts Democrats for the Presidency.)

both parties, although a great deal more importance is attached by certain classes of politicians to what is called campaign strategy than the facts justify. The prevailing public opinion that renders the final verdict in a Presidential election is not shaped principally by the influences set at work consciously at campaign headquarters. Nevertheless, there is a broad field for effective work open to the directors of campaign methods, and it is particularly desirable that the campaign this year on both sides should be free from old-fashioned political tricks and should show modern methods of the kind familiar to men who now conduct large business enterprises or carry on important organizations. There is plenty of good administrative talent to be had, and, whether or not Mr. Cortelyou is to be the Republican chairman, it is a good sign that he should have been seriously spoken of for the place.

*Mr. Olney's
Massachusetts
Friends.* The Democratic situation shows no marked change since the Parker movement received so decisive an impetus, in April, by the favorable action of the New York State convention. Southern Democratic managers in general have been ready enough to follow the lead of New York, and the impression prevails that Judge Parker will be the nominee. Nevertheless, there are many Democrats even among those not friendly to

Meanwhile, the Democrats of Pennsylvania had held their convention at Harrisburg, and had decided to send an uninstructed delegation to St. Louis, bound,

*Pennsylvania
Uninstructed.*

however, to act together, in accordance with what is termed the "unit rule." An attempt to instruct for Judge Parker failed, although the delegation is regarded as friendly rather than otherwise in its attitude toward the New York candidate. Naturally, there is much interest on the part of Parker men to know how

COLONEL M'GUFFEY.

(Leader of the Pennsylvania Democrats.)

Pennsylvania's great block of sixty-eight convention votes will be handled at St. Louis. Col. James McGuffey is the leader, and will presumably control the delegation. The Gorman men believe that if the signs are at all favorable Colonel McGuffey and the Pennsylvanians will

from the very start support the Maryland Senator, although they admit that if nothing practical can be done for Gorman the Pennsylvania support will probably revert to Parker. On the other hand, it is said among the political gossips that Pennsylvania's delegation may be used as the starting-point for a stampede of the convention in favor of Mayor George B. McClellan, of New York. And thus the political pot simmers.

SENATOR GORMAN, OF MARYLAND.

(A prominent candidate for the Presidential nomination.)

Some friends of Gorman. The West Virginia convention, held the day after that of Pennsylvania and the day before that of Massachusetts, had chosen an uninstructed delegation, with the understanding that its members were in favor of Senator Gorman first, and probably of Judge Parker second. Senator Gorman had also secured the delegation from the District of Columbia, for which Mr. Hearst had made a strong contest, and it was entirely certain that the Maryland convention to be held on May 26 would be under the control of Mr. Gorman and his friends. It was evident that there might still be some chance for Mr. Gorman as a compromise candidate at St. Louis.

The Democrats of Indiana. The most interesting convention, from the Democratic standpoint, after the decisive victory of Judge Parker at Albany was that which was held at Indianapolis on May 12. The Hearst men had

HON. THOMAS TAGGART, OF INDIANA.

(Who may conduct the Democratic campaign.)

shown great activity and determination, but they were able to control less than five hundred delegates, as against more than a thousand who were prepared to support Judge Parker. The convention instructed the thirty Indiana delegates to vote for the New York candidate, and recommended the leader of their organization, the Hon. Thomas Taggart, for national chairman and campaign manager this year. It was noted that the mention of the name of George B. McClellan aroused great enthusiasm in the convention at Indianapolis. It is intimated that the Indiana support of Parker may be only a formal one for the first ballot or two. The results, however, were, on their face, a marked victory for the New York candidate.

Parker in the Doubtful States.

It is to be borne in mind that it is generally regarded as necessary to Democratic success that New York, New Jersey, Connecticut, and Indiana should be carried in the election, and the Connecticut delegation, on May 6, had been instructed to vote as a unit for Judge Parker. The New Jersey convention had been held early, on April 4, and although the delegation was uninstructed, in accordance with New Jersey custom, the prevailing sentiment was for Parker. The New Jersey delegates would be for Cleveland if there were any chance of securing his

paper of the same name at Los Angeles. The convention was held at Santa Cruz, on May 16 and 17, and after a bitter and uncompromising struggle, it ended in a victory for Mr. Hearst by the narrow margin of nineteen votes.

*Wall is
Wisconsin's
Choice.*

The Hearst support was so strong in Wisconsin that it looked at one time as if it might control the State convention; but the anti-Hearst Democrats rallied around a favorite local candidate in the person of Edward C. Wall, and as a result, the Wisconsin delegates, on May 17, were instructed for Wall by a vote of 304 to 226 for Hearst. It is declared that this Wall delegation from Wisconsin would readily support Judge Parker if that should seem the best thing to

HON. EDWARD C. WALL, OF MILWAUKEE.

(Named for the Presidency by Wisconsin Democrats.)

nomination, but otherwise are expected to support Judge Parker, who has been heartily indorsed by Mr. Cleveland himself.

*Ohio and
Mr. Harmon.*

The Ohio Democrats, whose convention was set for the 24th, were more likely to send their delegates to St. Louis uninstructed, although the Cincinnati delegates were for Hon. Judson Harmon, who was Attorney-General under President Cleveland, and it was thought possible that the entire Ohio delegation might be led to give Mr. Harmon at least a complimentary support. Meanwhile, the delegates had been selected in a number of Ohio Congressional districts, several of which had been carried for Mr. Hearst by the radicals.

*California and
Iowa are for
Hearst.*

The Iowa delegation was instructed for Mr. Hearst, on May 4, by a considerable majority, in a large and turbulent convention. One of the four delegates-at-large is Gen. James B. Weaver, once the Populist candidate for the Presidency, and the other three members are Messrs. J. M. Parsons, F. M. Carr, and S. B. Wadsworth. It had all along been regarded by the managers of the Hearst movement as indispensable to carry California, which is Mr. Hearst's native State. He is the proprietor of the San Francisco *Examiner*, and he has recently established a news-

has not been followed by any such degree of acquiescence and harmony as had been

hoped for. The fight between the Tammany forces and the Hill-Parker combination has progressed with increasing bitterness, and the mutual charges and accusations are furnishing the Republicans with ammunition for their campaign. A few weeks ago, the New York Republican situation seemed to be faction-torn and disfigured, but the scars have been healing, and, in any case, the Democratic plight is decidedly worse.

HON. JAMES B. WEAVER.

(An Iowa delegate-at-large to the St. Louis convention.)

*Governor
Odell's Voters.*

The New York Republicans had been hurt by the recklessness of the last legislature and by the belief that if was improperly, if not corruptly, influenced by

several great corporations in the passage of measures against which the best newspapers and various organized bodies of citizens had earnestly protested. But these measures were passed late in the session; and to become effective had to be signed by the governor, who is allowed, under the New York constitution, a period of thirty days after the adjournment of the Legislature within which to approve or disapprove. Among these measures, the one most talked about in the New York newspapers was known as the Remsen bill, granting certain desired privileges to the Consolidated Gas monopoly of New York City, the exact nature and extent of which were matters of interpretation upon which there was wide difference of opinion. Under the New York system, laws affecting the municipality are submitted for approval or disapproval to the mayor before the governor takes final action. In the case of this gas bill, Mayor McClellan gave his approval, thereby arousing much criticism and exposing himself to attack on the ground of undue deference to powerful corporate influences. Governor Odell in due time vetoed the measure, and thus took the position of being a better and a firmer protector of the interests of the people of New York City than their own mayor. This circumstance brought back to mind the fact that in a former period Mr. Odell had been powerfully influential in securing the repeal of the charter of the Ramapo Water Company at a time when that objectionable company had been abetted by a Tammany city government in its nefarious plan to control the sources of New York City's future water-supply. Another measure passed by the last legislature conferred rights and powers at Niagara upon private interests desiring to monopolize the water power at the expense of the scenery,—a bill that aroused great indignation and was generally assailed by the newspapers. Here, also, Governor Odell intervened, last month, with a veto which enhances his own reputation and to some extent relieves the Republican party of its burden of odium. The governor, under the New York constitution, has the right to veto items in appropriation bills. Taking advantage of this power, Governor Odell has, by an unprecedented application of the pruning-knife, cut two million dollars out of the aggregate sum voted by the Legislature. He is now chairman of the State Republican Committee.

*The Crusade
Against
Gambling.* A measure of much local interest in New York City passed by the recent legislature was a bill so changing existing laws as to make it possible to obtain evidence against the keepers of gambling-houses.

Heretofore, the habitués of such places could not be compelled to testify, on the ground that in so doing they might give evidence tending to degrade or incriminate themselves. This change in the law was due to the personal efforts of District Attorney Jerome, who has for several years waged a determined though only partially successful warfare against the gambling evil in New York City. As an immediate result of the new bill, Mr. Jerome was in a position, last month, to frighten the richest and most famous of New York gamblers into abandonment of his business and removal to England.

*Policy-shops
and
Pool-rooms.* Gambling, in a city like New York, takes on various forms. Perhaps the worst evil is that of the so-called "policy-shops," which are patronized by boys,

CAPT. F. NORTON GODDARD, OF NEW YORK.

and by men of very small means and income. Against this form of gambling, many people who have a concern for the moral good of the rising generation in our great cities have contended with all their might, counting always upon the cooperation of zealous officials like Mr. Jerome. One of the most conspicuous leaders against the policy-shop keepers in New York has been and now is Capt. F. Norton Goddard, a gentleman of means and education, still young, who ranks high among practical Republican politicians of New York, and who gives constantly of his time and means for the betterment

of the community. Circumstances, last month, lifted Mr. Goddard into a new and national prominence as a leader against a widespread gambling evil of another form,—namely, that carried on in the so-called “pool-rooms,” which are centers for gambling upon the daily results of horse-racing on the various tracks throughout the country, but especially those in the general vicinity of New York City. As most of our readers are perhaps aware, the horse-racing on the famous Eastern tracks is no longer related in any important way at all to the turf as a legitimate sporting interest, but exists almost solely as a basis for organized gambling. Many thousands of the nondescript and peculiar people who gather in the great metropolis of New York go every day to the race-tracks, not through any honest interest in horseflesh, but partly for the excitement of betting, and partly for the hope of gain from their dealings with the “pool-sellers” and “book-makers.” But, for every hundred people who have the time and opportunity to go to the race-tracks, there are probably several hundred unfortunate victims of the gambling mania who manage to squander their small means in one or another of the pool-rooms conveniently scattered throughout every portion of the city. Some of these pool-rooms are run especially or exclusively for women; all of them are under the strict ban of the law; and to be engaged in such a business is to commit a crime, under the penal code.

Complicity of the Western Union. So much by way of preface. Now, it would be inconvenient, and, indeed, almost impossible, to carry on these pool-rooms without a constant and well-organized service of racing news supplied direct from the various race-tracks. Last month, a committee of the City Club (this club being an excellent organization in New York devoted to civic and municipal reform) made a report upon its investigation of the pool-room evil in New York City. Captain Goddard presented the report as chairman of the committee. The nub of it was that complete evidence had been obtained to show that the Western Union Telegraph Company was not only regularly supplying the pool-rooms with the requisite racing news, but that it was cheerfully aiding in the establishment of additional pool-rooms by methods in no way short of aiding and abetting the commission of crime. The report was so complete and definite that it left no room for doubt. It might, however, have had no practical effect if the newspapers had chosen to belittle or ignore it. On the contrary, they gave it sensational publicity and active support.

An Acute Discussion.

The Western Union Telegraph Company, through its president, Mr. Clowry, replied in a statement which read well, but which evaded the points at issue. Mr. Clowry defended the methods of the company on the ground that it was the duty of the Western Union to transmit all telegrams submitted to it which were not couched in profane or improper language; and he held that racing news did not, in form, violate the proprieties. Mr. Clowry's statement was unfortunate for the company, because its evasions were so easily exposed; and the bad position of the Western Union was at once relentlessly assailed in quarters of great strength and influence. Mayor McClellan, as our readers are aware, had been so fortunate as to secure for commissioner of police an able lawyer and experienced and high-minded public man in the person of Mr. William McAdoo, who at once came forward to take a leading part in the argument against the position of the Western Union. With Mr. Jerome, the prosecuting attorney, equally energetic, and with nearly all the newspapers, as we have said, taking a strong and clear position in stating the facts in their true bearings, the Western Union found itself, in a few days, in a position that exposed its distinguished board of directors, not merely to public obloquy, but to very serious danger of indictment for daily profitable complicity in crime.

The Facts in the Case. The practices of the Western Union were soon made entirely plain. It was not in the least true that it had merely acted as a common carrier,—that is to say, had only received and transmitted telegrams as in the ordinary course of business in its forwarding of news from the racing fields. On the contrary, the Western Union Telegraph Company had created a highly lucrative monopoly of the ownership and sale of racing news, using its wires merely for the distribution of its commodity. It had arranged with the proprietors of the race-tracks to give its agents exclusive opportunities, and it had thus not merely supplied the pool-rooms with their news, but it had in point of fact been the chief factor in creating the whole pool-room system of the country as a market for its wares. It was, moreover, shown that the Western Union Company, having thus created the pool-room system, was in a position virtually to blackmail the pool-room keepers by charging them outrageously exorbitant prices for a service which otherwise they could not obtain. It was shown conclusively, furthermore, that the pool-rooms were supplied by the Western Union Company with telegraph operators

especially trained and skillful in aiding the keepers of such places to evade the police and dodge the emissaries of the district attorney. The telegraph wires were brought down chimneys, or in other similar ways hidden as much as possible from the officers of the law. Everything in the organization and conduct of this racing service, from beginning to end, indicated a knowledge on the part of the officials of the Western Union Company that the business, though immensely profitable, was risky and hazardous, because criminal.

Beginnings of Retreat. At length, as the situation began to grow dangerous for the Western

Union people, an order was issued, on May 17, and given to the newspapers, to the effect that the racing service as supplied in New York City had been on that date discontinued. The newspapers, however, of the morning of the 18th laughed this order to scorn, because they readily asserted that all the pool-rooms were as completely served with news as before, the Western Union having merely shifted its center of operations for the racing service across the Hudson River to Jersey City, from which point the New York pool-rooms were supplied without delay and without any loss of revenue to the Western Union Company by means of an arrangement with the Bell Telephone Company. A railroad company could not, it is true, be expected to use extraordinary vigilance to see that burglars never purchased tickets or rode on passenger trains from one city to another. But a railroad company that should go into the business of organizing a service of special night trains to enable bank robbers to escape, with the understanding that it should receive a very large part of the average profits of safe-blowing, would be engaged in a distinct departure from the function of a common carrier. There is no flaw in the analogy. The Western Union Telegraph Company, well knowing that the carrying on of the pool-room business is a crime in New York, as it is in most States of the Union, had nevertheless acquired a monopoly of the collection and sale of the commodity which alone makes pool-rooms possible, and had then gone deliberately into the business of helping the pool-rooms to evade the officers of the law, on condition of sharing largely in their ill-gotten gains.

The Hesitant Directors. Some of the directors of the Western Union Telegraph Company have large reputation as philanthropists, and the same thing is true of some of the principal stockholders who are not directors. For a few days after the Goddard exposure, some of these gen-

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HON. WILLIAM M'ADOO.

(Police commissioner of New York, who is winning public approval for his energy and efficiency.)

tle men were taking refuge behind their professed ignorance of the details of the business of the company, while others were quite ready to give assurances that whenever they were convinced that the company was engaged in any unlawful or improper business they would refuse to countenance it. Yet, to the unbiased mind, nothing could have been more evident than that these gentlemen were engaged in a business for which there could be no excuse, because it would have been a most objectionable traffic in every moral aspect, even if it had not been a manifestly criminal one under the penal code. Some of these men have deeply reprobated the practice of the New York police in blackmailing gambling-houses and places of ill repute. But in theory and in practice, the Western Union has itself not only been guilty of a similar form of moral offense, but it has gone further, since it has acted as chief agent in the creation of the system of gambling-houses upon which it has been able afterward to levy its immense daily tribute.

The Chief Offender.

For it is to be remembered, as we have already explained, that the Western Union had not been acting merely as a telegraph company, taking tolls for the transmission of racing news, but had been engaged in the business of collecting and selling this news, as well as of transmitting it; and its system had naturally,—and, of course, inten-

tionally,—promoted the creation everywhere throughout the country, as far as possible, of the pool-room business. In any other country in the world except our own, private telegraph companies are so amenable to authority that they would never dream for a moment of having lists of pool-rooms which were not at all times open to the inspection of the police and other officials engaged in the enforcement of the law. But.

*The Final and
Precipitate
Retreat.*

Mr Jerome, with his new statutory power to obtain evidence, was said to be about to summon the whole board of directors of the Western Union Telegraph Company into court; and the prospects of their names being unpleasantly presented to a grand jury were far from remote. All such disagreeable experiences were fended off, however, by their complete and precipitate abandonment of their unlawful business. The directors met on May 19, and on that date President Clowry issued an order to the company's general superintendents at New York, Chicago, San Francisco, and Atlanta which read as follows:

It has been decided to discontinue forthwith the collection and distribution by this company of horse-race reports. You will please act accordingly. Acknowledge receipt.—ROBERT C. CLOWRY, president and general manager.

Mr. Jerome promptly declared that he took this order at its face value, and believed that the directors proposed to bring forth fruits meet for repentance. The date of the order coincided exactly with the date upon which it had been reported that criminal proceedings would be begun against the Western Union directors for aiding and abetting a felony; and it was on the morning of that day that summonses were to be issued to all the directors. Certainly, a new sort of crisis had to be faced.

*A Well-
Seasoned
Guilty.*

One would like to believe that it was a sense of moral duty toward the public rather than a fear of Mr. Jerome as a prosecutor that brought about so sweeping and unexpected an action on the part of the Western Union Company. But it is impossible to overlook the fact that this moral issue has not now been presented to the company for the first time, by any means. The Rev. Dr. Newman Smyth declares that for ten years he and other gentlemen in Connecticut have been fighting against the telegraph company's complicity in the pool-room evil. In various other places, at various times, attempts have been made, with more or less temporary success, to induce the Western Union Company to cease its promotion of pool-room gambling. It is a good many years since the Western Union went into the pool-room enterprise; and it had been developed into the most profitable single department of all the ramified business of this great monopoly. It was estimated by the newspapers, last month, that there were three hundred pool-rooms in New York City alone; and some of them stated the gross income of the Western Union's race-track news business to be not less than five million dollars a year.

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DISTRICT ATTORNEY JEROME.

now that the facts were known as to responsibility for the existence of the pool-room evil,—if the laws of New York and of other States were not found sufficiently explicit to enable public authorities to strike at the root of the thing,—it would be easy to amend those laws, and the people were ready to do it. The Western Union Telegraph Company had been discovered as the principal offender, since the pool-room system was merely the method it had developed for the profitable sale to gamblers of its racing news, and since the agents and collectors and operators of the telegraph company, rather than the keepers of the pool-rooms, were the important people in the details of the system. Although this agitation began as a matter local to the metropolis, it was taken up at once as a subject of concern in almost every other city and State of the Union. Corroborative facts were brought to light in various places.

This was probably an overstatement. *A Loss of Revenue.* But a very conservative financial paper, the *Wall Street Journal*, went into the matter in some detail on May 19, and came to the conclusion that a minimum estimate would be that the company had been deriving two million dollars a year net profits from its pool-room traffic. This figure, when placed in relation with the fact that in the year ending June 30 last the total net revenue of the company was \$8,214,472, shows, first, how tremendous an item in the company's profits the pool-room tribute money had come to be, and, second, what a drastic measure the directors adopted on the 18th when they abolished this whole department, throwing, probably, from two thousand to three thousand of their most expert servants out of work without notice, and putting the pool-room proprietors, who had gone into the business under the company's auspices, in a very sorry plight. The directors and chief owners of the Western Union Telegraph Company might indeed have established a pretty large reputation for philanthropy on annual donations of much less money than the total of their side winnings as partners in the pool-room gambling business.

Chicago's Experience. Now that the thing has been exposed and the company has reformed, everybody would be glad to forget as well as to forgive. But it is neither right nor safe that the truth should be left untold or the facts be forgotten; for, however good its present intentions may be, the Western Union Telegraph Company has been a sad sinner for a long time, and it is only too likely again to fall from grace. It has had faithful admonitions in years past, and surely these could not have escaped the attention of its eminent directors. A single quotation will suffice to show the sort of admonition to which we refer. Eight years ago, the upright citizens of Chicago were having a fight against the pool-room evil, and against another form of gambling quite as pernicious and very prevalent in that city,—namely, the bucket-shops. At that time, the late William T. Baker was president of the Chicago Board of Trade, and he was also president of the Civic Federation. He had been president of the Columbian Exposition in 1893. This eminent citizen, in his report for 1896, as president of the Board of Trade, made statements from which the following is a quotation:

Bucket-shops and pool-rooms are twin outlaws in nearly every State in the Union. Their united corruption fund has enabled them to baffle justice by debauchery of the constituted authority for the investigation and prosecution of crime, but they could not continue in existence a day but for their alliance with

the Western Union Telegraph Company. That company furnishes all the machinery and all the news on which bets are laid, and it is the only telegraph company in the United States that leases wires for the private use of bucket-shops in swindling their patrons. The spectacle of a corporation with a hundred million dollars' capital paying dividends gleaned from the vice and crime of the country is one to make any American blush. Contrast this with the conduct of some of the great newspapers of this city, which cannot be hired to print the harmless-appearing advertisements of bucket-shops. It may be said that a great commercial organization like this has no need to concern itself with questions of morals, but the ethics of business are based on a high standard of commercial morality, which it is our duty to preach and to practise. When we see our efforts to rid ourselves of the incubus of bucket-shops embarrassed by such a condition as is here outlined, we find our self-interest exalted by our patriotic duty as citizens in striking down a wrong. The crusade in which we have been so long engaged will not cease. Complete success will, however, be hastened by our maintaining among ourselves an unimpeachable standard of business honor.

*Vigilance
Still
Needed.*

It is hard to believe that statements like these could have failed to reach those responsible for the conduct of the Western Union Telegraph Company. While, therefore, the public will doubtless take the new policy of the company as now adopted in good faith, it will regard the situation as one requiring close and careful watching. The great gambling public, under the tutelage of the Western Union, has become so steeped in the pool-room habit that it will still be difficult, if not impossible, for the agents of the law to suppress the business. The telephone company has promised to coöperate with the police in New York; but doubtless the pool-room men will manage in one way or another to get their supply of news from the race-tracks. The Western Union Company will, of course, receive racing news when filed and transmitted as ordinary messages. Nobody objects to its acting in the normal capacity of a telegraph company; but it must cease to play the rascal, and it must give up its confidential relations with law-breakers, and destroy its criminal paraphernalia. To clear itself with the public, it must now go to the other extreme and act the part of the good citizen, helping the public authorities to suppress vice and crime.

*Law
Must Be
Respected.*

Quite apart from the nature or extent of the gambling evil that it is desired to suppress by the merited attack upon the villainies practised by the Western Union Telegraph Company, the vigorous movement now under way is reassuring for another reason. It is a part of the new assertion of

representatives of law and government against the great corporations that for a good many years past have thought themselves superior to the law and have trampled upon it with impunity. The Western Union Company's pool-rooms have been an incomparably greater source of evil in New York than Mr. Canfield's gambling-houses. Why, therefore, should the distinguished gentlemen who have been the principal beneficiaries of the pool-room system not be held accountable? The time is fast drawing to an end when leading financiers and eminent citizens can in their private and personal capacity be esteemed as pillars of the Church, patrons of education, and mainstays of philanthropy while in their capacity as directors of corporations they bribe legislators, plunder their communities, and play the part of the worst enemies of the social welfare. New York has suffered peculiarly from the lawlessness of predatory corporations, but few parts of the country have wholly escaped.

*Leaders of a
Hopeful
Movement.*

The action of men like Folk in St. Louis, several who might be named in Chicago, and the leaders of a growing brotherhood of courageous citizenship

approved the franchise-tax bill, in consequence of which the corporations sent forth the edict that he was to be removed from political power. The country is not ignorant of the foiled conspiracy of corporation leaders to prevent his nomination at Chicago this month. Nor is the country unaware of the continued desire for his defeat in certain quarters because he cannot be expected to change his convictions as to the duty of law-enforcement. President Roosevelt has no prejudices against capital, is not blind to the advantages of amalgamation, and is not a persecutor of corporations by reason of their size or their wealth. But the country recognizes in him a steadfast disposition to assert the superiority of the law over its creatures,—hence his strength with the people. The stand taken in New York by men like Mr. Jerome and Commissioner McAdoo will be likely to give them a hold upon public confidence that will bring them further opportunities for usefulness in the future, perhaps in higher offices than those they now hold. The fearless and intrepid course pursued by Mr. Folk as circuit attorney in St. Louis has given him national fame, and has so favorably impressed the plain people of the State of Missouri that in spite of intense opposition it is now admitted that he will receive the Democratic nomination for the governorship and probably carry the State by a large majority. His name has been mentioned frequently as a possible compromise candidate for the Presidency,—all of which illustrates the fact that the country has come to a new sense of the necessity of honesty and efficiency in the enforcement of the laws and the carrying on of the work of administration. Mr. Folk may have some opinions upon the tariff question and other matters of national legislative policy, but it has not occurred to many of his admirers to ask about such opinions. They hold other issues to be even more important.

*Progress in
Panama
Affairs.*

In the last hours of the session, Congress failed to agree upon the legislation that had been framed for the government of the Panama Canal zone, and, instead, followed the plan adopted at the time of the Louisiana Purchase,—a plan employed later, when Florida was bought, and yet more recently, when the Philippines were acquired. In all these instances, Congress vested administrative authority temporarily in the hands of the President. It was promptly decided by President Roosevelt to have the Panama Commission and the "zone" government report through the War Department. General Davis, of the commission, was made governor. On the 19th of May, Gov-

HON. JOSEPH W. FOLK, OF ST. LOUIS.

in New York affords a cheering prospect. A standard has been raised around which many other men will be glad to rally. Nothing, indeed, has given President Roosevelt so strong a hold upon the people as the belief that he has the courage needed for a period of reform in just these directions. It is not to be forgotten that as governor of New York he encouraged and

*Japan's
Plan of
Campaign.*

At last, through the tangle of newspaper reports and in spite of the rigid Japanese censorship, we are beginning to perceive the large general lines of the campaign planned by the Mikado's generals. It reveals a masterly conception, which the Japanese general staff have been carrying out with orderly development, never permitting themselves to be hurried, and steadily refusing to tell the world what they intended to do until it had been done. The main features of this great campaign can now be seen to follow closely the campaign planned and actually carried out by the Japanese in their war with China. Four general objects seem to have been in view up to the present stage,—first, the absolute command of the sea and the coast, in order that the safe transportation of the Japanese army of invasion might be insured; second, the thorough occupation of Korea as a continental base; third, the crossing of the Yalu River and the driving of the Russians back into Manchuria; and, fourth, the effectual "bottling up" of Port Arthur,—this to be followed by the investment of that place, the cutting of the railroad, and the subsequent control of the Liao-tung Peninsula. These objects attained,—and they had been attained by the middle of May,—all maritime Manchuria is in the hands of the Japanese forces. The Mikado's generals appear to have thoroughly learned the lessons of the war with China and to be perfectly familiar with the country in which they are fighting. Up to the present, they have not failed in any of their plans.

MR. JOHN F. WALLACE.

(Appointed chief engineer of the Panama Canal.)

ernor Davis, who was on the ground, issued a proclamation from the "Office of the Governor of the Isthmian Canal Zone, Culebra," and this was addressed "To the Inhabitants of the Canal Zone." It was explained that the Isthmian Canal Commission has been given authority in all matters of legislation, and that the government of the region would be carried on subject to the direction of the Secretary of War. The Secretary of the Treasury came to New York, on May 9, with a warrant for \$40,000,000 and fully paid off Uncle Sam's indebtedness to the French Panama Company. The republic of Panama has also now received her promised \$10,000,000. The commission was deemed highly fortunate in being able to secure the services of Mr. John F. Wallace as chief engineer. To take this place, Mr. Wallace resigned his position as general manager of the Illinois Central Railroad system. His acceptance involves sacrifices, but he appreciates the greatness of the professional opportunity that lies before him. His is now the task of carrying through the most colossal engineering project in the history of the world. The health problem on the Isthmus, meanwhile, is to be dealt with by the best medical and sanitary experts obtainable.

*The
Japanese
Cross the Yalu.*

General Kuroki won the first land victory for Japan on Sunday morning, May 1. In a six-day fight on the Yalu River, a few miles northeast of Wiju, the Russian generals Zassulitch and Kashtalinski, their forces aggregating from ten thousand to fifteen thousand men, were decisively beaten, with a loss in killed, wounded, and prisoners of twenty-three hundred and ninety-seven men and twenty-eight guns. It was part of the Japanese general forward movement. On April 26, the first section of the Japanese Imperial Guards and the second division of infantry crossed over the shallow channel of the Yalu to the island which divides it, about forty miles north of Wiju. The crossing continued, the Japanese forces extending over a line eighty miles long, to conceal the point of concentration. The Russians made no very serious opposition to the crossing, although their bombardment of the forts of Wiju at long range from the Manchurian side inflicted considerable damage. The main Japanese crossing began at 3 o'clock on the morn-



MAP OF THE REGION IN WHICH THE JAPANESE WON THEIR FIRST LAND VICTORY.

ing of April 30, when a part of the twelfth division, taking their heavy artillery, crossed from Suku, on the Korean side, over a pontoon bridge to Kiu-lien-cheng, in Manchuria. Here the Russians were strongly posted. The hills rise steeply at this point, and the fortifications on their summit command Antung and the road to Peking.

A Japanese Victory.

The action was begun by an artillery duel in which the Russians discovered, apparently much to their surprise, that the Japanese possessed, and were using, heavy artillery. The Russian guns were finally silenced and their outposts driven back. General Kuroki gave the order to charge at 7:30 on the morning of Sunday, May 1, and the Japanese infantry, wading the stream, breast-high, stormed the heights. By 9 o'clock, the Russians, though fighting gallantly, were swept back across the plateau. In this general charge, in which bayonets were used, the Japanese lost eight hundred men. The Russians suffered heavily. One of their regiments (the Eleventh Siberian) only escaped destruction by cutting its way out in a desperate bayonet charge led by a

devoted priest who ran on foot holding aloft a crucifix. The victory was made complete by the assistance of a Japanese gunboat flotilla, which steamed up the Yalu and shelled the Russians at Antung. The latter were finally compelled to evacuate the town, which they burned before leaving. Night saw the Japanese firmly intrenched on the Manchurian side of the Yalu, with the Russians in full retreat. General Zaslitch had been ordered to retire without giving battle. Whether he disobeyed orders, or whether, as seems more likely, the precision and celerity of the Japanese movements made him choose between fighting and surrendering, is not certain. It is reported, however, that he has been severely censured, and that he will be suspended from his command.

Effect of the Russian Defeat.

The moral effect of this victory for the Japanese has been tremendous. The Russians themselves admit that they have been sadly mistaken in the character of their opponents. For the first time, an Asiatic army has defeated European troops; and the effect on China is thought to be awaited

for eventualities. Austria has greatly increased her military budget; the French find in their agreement with England a guaranty of peace; Germany is watching for an opportunity to offer mediation, and the Scandinavian countries are so much exercised over their own safety that they have come to a secret understanding with regard to neutrality, the terms of which have not been made public, but which include the mining of all the coasts of the three kingdoms, —Norway, Sweden, and Denmark.

*What Will
Kuropatkin
Do?*

General Kuropatkin's plan of campaign apparently contemplates the gradual retirement, without giving battle, of all the Russian forces in Manchuria and their concentration at some point, such as Harbin, on the railroad, where, when sufficient reinforcements have been received, the Russian commander will feel strong enough to assume the offensive. He insists that the Russian retreat, the different repulses, and even the defeat on the Yalu, were all foreseen in his general campaign. General Kuroki is pushing on to surround the Russians. His advance guard is reported to have suffered at least one repulse by the Cossacks, but, by the middle of May, the Japanese forces had advanced to within twenty miles of the main Russian lines. One division, victorious at the Yalu, had marched from Feng-Wang-Cheng; another up the Liao-tung Peninsula, the third from Kinchow, and a fourth was supposed to be cutting off General Kuropatkin's retreat from the north. The approaching conjunction of the force landed on Liao-tung Peninsula with the division marching from Kinchow is believed to render untenable for the Russians the cities of Dalny, Yinkow, and Newchwang. At any rate, Newchwang has been evacuated by the Russians, and Dalny practically deserted and partially destroyed.

*Dalny Partly
Destroyed.*

Nothing, perhaps, has more clearly indicated the desperate condition of Russian fortunes in the war up to the present than the evacuation of Dalny by the Czar's army and the destruction of its docks and public buildings, lest they should be of service to the Japanese. The "flat" city of Dalny has been one of the dearest treasures of Russia in the far East. It is the real ice-free port, the business end of Russian eastern Asia, as Port Arthur is the military end. The edict for the construction of Dalny was issued in 1899. Twenty million dollars were spent before it had any inhabitants to make it a center of Oriental commerce. The best Russian engineers built its docks, its depots, and its public buildings;

MAJOR-GENERAL KUROKI.

(Who defeated the Russian general, Zassulitch, on the Yalu.)

with much nervousness by the Czar's government. The Chinese are observing the official neutrality; but General Ma, who has twenty or thirty thousand men in Manchuria not far from the present scene of hostilities, reports great difficulty in restraining his men from making common cause with the Japanese. The Japanese general staff has issued a statement requesting the strictest of neutrality on the part of the Chinese; but, in the words of one of the prominent Chinese representatives in this country, the people are decidedly pro-Japanese in this war, and "no Chinaman, except he be some ignorant native who has been bribed by Russian gold, is in favor of Russia." The effect on Korea has already been disastrous to the Russians. On May 19, the Japanese Government received an official notification from Seoul that the government of Korea had canceled all its treaties with Russia and all concessions made by it to Russian subjects. Comment in Europe is greatly in praise of Japanese efficiency and bravery. Some German journals are even openly predicting Russia's defeat and declaring that Europe may have to intervene, despite the official announcement of the Czar's government that no mediation or intervention, either during or after the war, will be tolerated. The rest of the continent of Europe is watching the conflict and preparing

and its breakwater and five stone piers, crowned with warehouses, and its elevators worked by electric power, made it a modern city in every respect. A number of steamship lines made callings at Dalny, and it became the chief terminus of the Trans-Siberian Railroad. Before leaving (reports from St. Petersburg say on May 12), the Russian garrison blew up the splendid docks and destroyed most of the public property. The evacuation of Newchwang and the dismantling of Dalny are an unmistakable confession that the whole of maritime Manchuria is lost to Russia.

*Port Arthur
Besieged.*

By the middle of May, all communication with the rest of the world having been cut off, Port Arthur was practically invested by land and sea. After the engagement in which the *Petropavlovsk* was sunk, on April 13, Admiral Togo continued his attempts to block the harbor-mouth. The most desperate of these attempts was on May 2. About a dozen stone-laden vessels were sent in by the Japanese, and, under a terrible fire from the forts and the Russian fleet, were sunk in the mouth of the harbor. The Russians strenuously deny that Port Arthur is "bottled up," but it is positively asserted at Tokio that the channel is now impassable except for very small boats. This having been accomplished, from some base,—probably the Elliott Islands, in the Liao-tung Gulf,—the Japanese moved a large fleet of transports, and, without meeting much resistance, landed their second great army at three points on the Liao-tung Peninsula,—at Pitsewo, at Cape Terminal, and at Kinchow. The last-named landing practically invested Port Arthur and cut off

Dalny. There have been as many denials of the land investment as of the bottling up at sea; but advices late in May indicated that the Japanese had cut the railroad for some thirty miles north of the narrowest part of the peninsula, and that Port Arthur, with its garrison of from twenty to thirty thousand men and its harbor-locked fleet, was to all intents and purposes besieged. Admiral Alexieff and the Grand Duke Boris left the town on May 2, and General Stoessel will have to take care of himself, which means either holding out until General Kuropatkin has defeated the Japanese or eventually surrendering when supplies run low.

*Japan's
Naval Losses.*

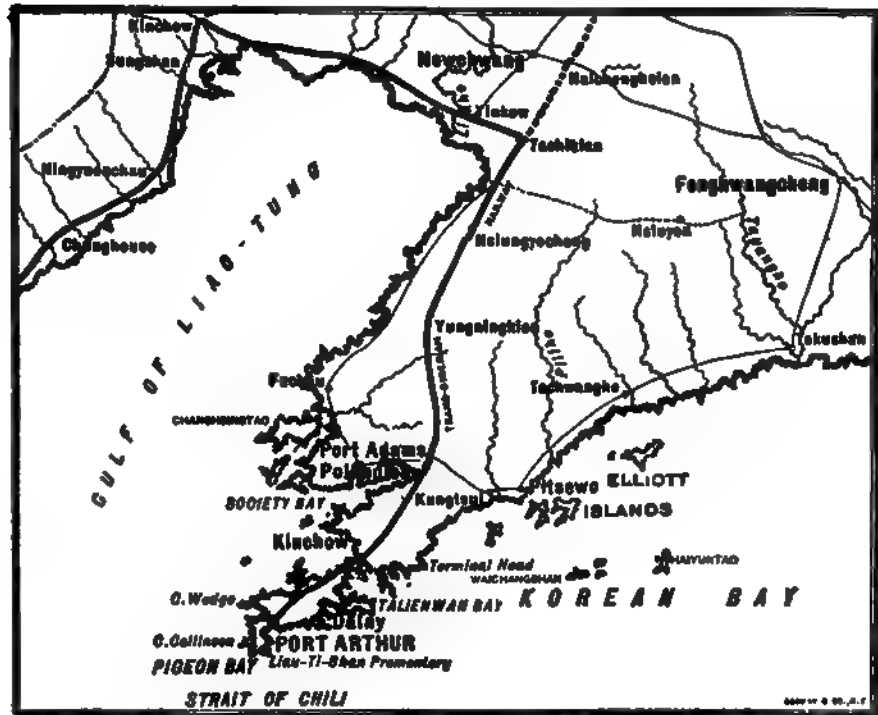
Up to the time of the sinking of the *Hatsuse* (May 15), Japan had lost four war vessels. The severest blow she had sustained up to May 21 was the sinking of the first-class battleship *Hatsuse*, which struck on a mine while cruising off Port Arthur. On the same day, Admiral Togo reported that the cruiser *Yoshino* was sunk by collision with the cruiser *Kasuga* (one of the vessels purchased from Argentina), during a thick fog, off Port Arthur. The loss of life on these vessels is reported as seven hundred men. It is thought, however, that the *Yoshino* can be saved. Earlier in May, it was reported that the Russians had succeeded in torpedoing, though not in sinking, a Japanese cruiser, the *Miyako*. It is certain that Admiral Togo lost two gunboats, which were blown up, on May 5, by mines in the harbor of Dalny which they were trying to destroy. A brave attempt on the part of a Russian lieutenant and five men in a small launch was also made to torpedo some of the Japanese vessels

in Talien-Wan Bay, just off Dalny, with what results later reports have not made quite clear.

All these *Vladivostok* losses compared with which the damage wrought by the raid of Russia's *Vladivostok* squadron was but trifling. Late in April, this *Vladivostok* squadron, consisting of four cruisers, under command of Admiral Jessen (or Yeazen), made a descent on the coast of northern Korea, put in at Gensan (Wonsan), caught and

sunk two small Japanese steamships, the *Goyo Maru* and the *Naka Maru*, and a Japanese transport, the *Kinshiu*, a four-thousand-ton merchantman. The *Kinshiu* had become separated from the main body of transports in a fog, and mistook the Russian cruisers for her own ships. She was laden with coal for Admiral Uriu's squadron. The Russians captured seventeen offi-

cers, twenty soldiers, and one hundred and thirty coolies. About one hundred of the Japanese, however, refused to surrender, and went down with the ship, firing their revolvers at the enemy. The Russian naval losses since the beginning of the war are shown, by Admiral Alexieff's last official report to the Czar, to be twelve warships sunk or disabled.



From the *Independent*.

THE HARBOR AT PORT ARTHUR, THE OBJECTIVE POINT OF JAPAN'S NAVAL OPERATIONS.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From April 21 to May 20, 1904.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

April 21.—The Senate passes the pension appropriation bill (\$137,000,000) and an emergency river and harbor appropriation bill (\$3,000,000). . . . The House passes the bill for the government of the Panama Canal zone, —a copy of the law of 1803 for the government of Louisiana Territory.

April 22.—The Senate debates the general deficiency appropriation bill. . . . The House sends the sundry civil appropriation bill and the Panama Canal zone bill to conference committees.

April 23.—The Senate passes the general deficiency appropriation bill, with an amendment practically reaffirming the present Chinese exclusion laws. . . . In the House, Mr. Dalzell (Rep., Pa.) charges Bourke Cockran (Dem., N. Y.) with accepting pay for supporting McKinley in 1896; Mr. Cockran bitterly resents the statement; the merchant marine commission bill is passed.

April 25.—The Senate adopts the conference report on the naval appropriation bill. . . . The House passes the bill providing for a Territorial Delegate from Alaska.

April 26.—The Senate passes the last of the appropriation bills. . . . In the House, Mr. Cockran (Dem., N. Y.) denies the assertion of Mr. Dalzell (Rep., Pa.) that he (Cockran) was paid for McKinley speeches in 1896 and asks for an investigation.

April 27.—The Senate adopts conference reports on all the great appropriation bills. . . . In the House, the resolution of Mr. Cockran (Dem., N. Y.) for an investigation of his political record is ruled out of order.

April 28.—The second session of the Fifty-eighth Congress comes to an end.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

April 21.—Massachusetts Democrats direct the delegates to St. Louis to vote as a unit for Richard Olney as candidate for President.

April 23.—President Roosevelt appoints Judge Beekman Winthrop to succeed William H. Hunt as governor of Porto Rico.

April 26.—Rhode Island Republicans elect delegates to Chicago and pledge support to President Roosevelt.

April 27.—Indiana Republicans nominate J. Frank Hanly for governor and indorse President Roosevelt's candidacy. . . . New Hampshire Democrats choose un instructed delegates to St. Louis.

April 28.—President Roosevelt reappoints Dr. William D. Crum collector of customs at Charleston, S. C.

May 3.—"Lily White" Republicans in Louisiana elect delegates to Chicago and instruct them for Roosevelt.

May 5.—Washington (State) Democrats choose ten delegates to St. Louis, seven of whom are favorable to the nomination of W. R. Hearst.

May 6.—Colorado Republicans choose Roosevelt delegates to Chicago. . . . Connecticut Democrats instruct their delegates to St. Louis to vote for Parker.

May 9.—President Roosevelt issues instructions to the Isthmian Canal Commission.

May 11.—Connecticut Republicans indorse the nomination of President Roosevelt. . . . Alabama and Maryland Republicans instruct for Roosevelt. . . . Washington (State) Republicans nominate Albert E. Mead for governor and instruct delegates to Chicago for Roosevelt.

May 12.—Indiana Democrats adopt the unit rule and instruct for Parker.

May 13.—Illinois Republicans instruct for Roosevelt and Hitt, but fail to name a State ticket.

May 16.—The United States Supreme Court sustains the action of the immigration authorities in ordering the deportation of John Turner, the English anarchist.

May 17.—New Hampshire and Arkansas Republicans instruct for Roosevelt. . . . Wisconsin Democrats instruct

for Edward C. Wall, of Milwaukee....California Democrats instruct for Hearst.

May 18.—Republicans in Idaho, Iowa, Michigan, Nebraska, New Hampshire, North Dakota, North Carolina, and Ohio instruct for Roosevelt.

May 19.—California and Wyoming Republicans instruct for Roosevelt....Wisconsin Republicans nominate two State tickets,—one headed by Gov. R. M. La Follette and the other by S. A. Cook,—and choose two sets of delegates to Chicago, both instructed for Roosevelt.

May 20.—Illinois Republicans, after taking fifty-eight fruitless ballots for a gubernatorial nomination, take a recess till May 31.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

April 21.—The Australian federal government is defeated in the House of Representatives on an arbitration bill.

April 22.—In consequence of its defeat in the House of Representatives, the Australian federal ministry resigns office....The German Reichstag adopts the resolution of the budget committee granting \$500,000 to persons rendered needy by the rising in German Southwest Africa.

April 23.—Mr. Watson, leader of the Labor party in the Australian Parliament, consents to form a ministry....The Hungarian railway strike ends....In Warsaw, eighteen Poles are hanged for taking part in a plot organized by the Polish Separist Revolutionary party.

April 26.—Mr. Watson completes his new Australian cabinet....The Cuban Government requests the resignations of the Supreme Court judges....Dr. W. Garnett is appointed by the London County Council educational adviser to the education committee, at a salary of \$7,500.

April 27.—The Australian Parliament adjourns till May 18.

April 28.—The Newfoundland Legislature is prorogued.

April 30.—Municipal elections take place throughout France.

May 4.—The Assembly of Panama rejects the gold-standard proposal by a vote of 16 to 13.

May 5.—The Venezuelan Congress confers on General Castro full dictatorial powers for a year, with the title of provisional president.

May 12.—Joseph Chamberlain speaks at Birmingham on protection.

May 15.—The Austrian budget calls for the expenditure of \$51,791,200 on army and navy.

May 18.—The Australian Parliament reassembles and Premier Watson announces the programme of the Labor cabinet.

May 20.—The Chilean cabinet resigns because of the reelection of Senator Lazcano as Speaker of the Senate.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

April 21.—France concedes all points at issue in the French Shore matter....A British force bombards the town of Illig, on the coast of Somaliland, and captures its sultan.

April 27.—Norway, Sweden, and Denmark reach an agreement regarding neutral regulations during the Russo-Japanese war.

April 29.—The French and Italian fleets are reviewed at Naples by President Loubet and King Victor Emmanuel.

May 6.—The British expedition in Tibet drives 1,500 Tibetans from a strong position near Karo Pass, killing or wounding nearly 200 of them....France decides to reject the protest made by the Vatican against President Loubet's visit to the King of Italy....Brazil threatens to expel by force the Peruvian troops now stationed in the disputed territory of Acre.

May 20.—The whole South Atlantic squadron is ordered to Tangier, in connection with the kidnaping of an

THE JAPANESE RED-CROSS HOSPITAL AT CHERMULPHO.

American citizen named Perdicaris and his stepson, Cromwell Varley, a British subject, by Arabs.

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

April 21.—The newspaper correspondents credited to the Russian force start for Mukden.

April 26.—The Japanese are reported to have bombarded Newchwang and the Russians to have entered Korea....The names of the foreign military attachés to the Japanese army are published....The Japanese cross the Yalu at two places....Two Russian torpedo boats sink the Japanese military transport *Kinshtu Maru*, laden with stores and coal; they also sink a small transport at Gen-San.

April 30.—Fighting on the Yalu continues; the Japanese have the advantage of position.

May 1.—The Japanese army, under General Kuroki, crosses the Yalu River in force and drives the Russians from their position at Kiu-lien-Cheng; the Russians,

May 4.—The General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church opens at Los Angeles, Cal.

May 7.—Secretary Shaw signs a warrant for \$40,000,000, in payment for the Panama Canal property.

May 10.—John F. Wallace, general manager of the Illinois Central Railroad, accepts the appointment to be chief engineer in charge of construction of the Panama Canal.

May 14.—Miss Clara Barton resigns the presidency of the American Red Cross; she is succeeded by Mrs. John A. Logan.

May 18.—The Western Union Telegraph Company issues a sweeping order that no more racing news shall be distributed over its wires from race-tracks, except in the form of regular messages....The General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church meets at Buffalo.

OBITUARY.

April 21.—Commodore William J. Kountz, of Pittsburgh, 85.

April 23.—Patrick Farrelly, one of the founders of the American News Company, 68.

April 24.—Henry Stafford Little, for many years one of the Democratic leaders of New Jersey, 81....Ex-Congressman Joseph Powell, of Pennsylvania, 76....Stevenson Burke, of Cleveland, well known as a railroad president, 80....Richard S. Greenough, an American sculptor, 85.

April 25.—John K. Cowen, ex-president of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad, 60....Judge Charles H. Simon-ton, of Charleston, S. C., 75....M. Gréard, the great French educationist, 76.

April 26.—Gen. Joseph Dickinson, last of the adjutant-generals of the Army of the Potomac, 68.

April 27.—Carlos P. Scovill, the oldest ex-member of the New York Legislature, 100.

April 29.—Charles A. Dilg, artist and historian, 59.

April 30.—Charles Storer Storrow, a distinguished American engineer, 95....Sir Charles Shute, 87.

May 1.—Antonin Dvorák, the Bohemian composer, 68 (see page 750).

May 2.—Edgar Fawcett, the American novelist, 57.

May 3.—Judge Andrew Kirkpatrick, of the United States District Court of New Jersey, 60....Ex-Congressman Ashbel P. Fitch, of New York, 56....Émile Du-claux, the French chemist, 64.

May 5.—Maurus Jókai, the Hungarian novelist, 79 (see page 685)....Franz von Lenbach, the German painter, 68.

May 6.—Prof. Maxwell Sommerville, the archæologist, of the University of Pennsylvania, 75.

May 7.—Charles Morgan McIlhenney, the American artist, 48....Andrew McNally, head of the Chicago printing and publishing firm of Rand, McNally & Co., 66....President Manuel Candamo, of Peru.

May 9.—Sir Henry Morton Stanley, the explorer, 68 (see page 673)....M. Pleske, late Russian minister of finance, 52.

May 12.—Gen. Andrew Hickenlooper, a well-known veteran of the Civil War, 87....James A. Hinson, a prominent inventor of car-coupling devices, 52....George Lincoln Dunlap, formerly general superintendent of the Chicago & Northwestern Railroad, 76.

May 16.—Gen. John B. Sanborn, of St. Paul, 78.

THE JAPANESE BATTLESHIP "HATSUSE."

(Sunk by a mine on May 15.)

falling back, are driven from their second position and the Japanese move northward in three divisions, their lines extending from Antung northwest to a point on the Liao-Yang road and thence northeast to a point above Kin-lien-Cheng; the Russian losses, according to the official report of the battle, comprise 2,997 officers and men, killed and wounded; unofficial statements place the Japanese loss at over 800 officers and men; many Russian guns are captured by the Japanese.

May 6.—Japanese forces land at Pitsewo and Kin-Chow, on the Liao-tung Peninsula, and cut railroad and telegraph communication with Port Arthur.

May 7.—The Japanese capture Feng-Wang-Cheng, the Russians retreating without a battle.

May 9.—Viceroy Alexieff establishes headquarters at Harbin.

May 10.—The Russians report railroad communication with Port Arthur as restored.

May 12.—The Russians blow up piers at Dalny and prepare to evacuate the place.

May 15.—Two Japanese warships are lost off Port Arthur; the cruiser *Yoshino* is rammed by the cruiser *Kasuga*, and the battleship *Hatsuse* is blown up by Russian mines.

May 16.—The Japanese dispatch boat *Miyako* is destroyed by a mine in Kerr Bay....Japanese troops engage three Russian battalions and eight guns near Kin-Chow, forty miles north of Port Arthur.

May 18.—A body of Japanese troops are engaged by Cossacks north of Feng-Wang-Cheng and driven back with loss.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

April 22.—The contract for the transfer of the Panama Canal property to the United States is signed at Paris.

April 30.—The Louisiana Purchase Exposition at St. Louis is formally opened....A World's Fair special train on the Iron Mountain Railroad is wrecked near Kimmswick, Mo.; the list of dead and injured reaches nearly fifty.

May 3.—Drew College, at Carmel, N. Y., is destroyed by fire.

CURRENT CARTOONS,—CHIEFLY POLITICAL.

THE VALUE OF THE BINDER IN HARVEST-TIME.—From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).

NOTHING but the modern twine-binder of the Western grain-fields could fitly symbolize the way in which President Roosevelt has been making his splendid sweep of the Republican field. No old-fashioned sickle for him in this political harvest business! The delegates are all now neatly bound by instruc-

tions, and the sheaves will be duly gathered in, to the strains of patriotic music, at Chicago, on the 21st of the present month. Eight years ago, the bands played "Hold the Fort;" four years ago, they all played "Dixie;" this year, they might well play "Bringing in the Sheaves."

A POLITICAL SWEAT-BOX.

Trying to force a confession from a suspect.
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).

MERELY A MASK?

A picture of the latest political rumor. Is Mr. Francis, of Missouri, Democracy's real candidate?
From the *Times* (Minneapolis).

THE DEMOCRATIC DONKEY.

A cut-out puzzle for Davy. Will he get the beast together again?
From the *Press* (New York).

MR. CLEVELAND SEEMS TO HAVE BEEN PUTTING UP A FEW LIGHTNING-BOLDS. (READ THE LABELS.)
GROVER CLEVELAND: "Who's afraid?"—From the *News Tribune* (Duluth).

WILLIE HEARST (to other Presidential candidates): "Oh, I'm out of it, am I?"—From the *News Tribune* (Duluth).

HOW PARKER IS HANDICAPPED.
From the *World* (New York).

THE WESTERN UNION AND THE MINIONS OF THE LAW.

An embarrassing position for a respectable citizen.

From the *Globe* (New York).A CHANCE FOR THE ACTIVE AXE OF DISTRICT ATTORNEY
JEROME.From the *Press* (New York).

UNCLE SAM: "Now watch me do things!"

From the *Globe* (New York).UNCLE SAM (to Japan): "I want you to understand that
officially, I'm absolutely neutral."From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).

WHAT STANLEY LIVED TO SEE ACCOMPLISHED IN AFRICA.

BY CYRUS C. ADAMS.

VICTOR HUGO wrote, long ago, that the man who should give Africa to the world would be known as the greatest of his time. To-day, the world possesses Africa, and no man can claim the undivided honor. It has been the work of many nations and many hundreds of men. Two great names, however, head the list of distinction. Livingstone and Stanley won this proud preëminence, not only by their unequalled achievements in African discovery, but also because their deeds, their unswerving faith, and their enthusiasm aroused the world from its indifference, turned all eyes toward the second largest of the continents, and started the African movement. Livingstone gave the first impulse to this change of attitude, and when he died in his straw hut Stanley continued, strengthened, and accelerated it.

The broad features of Stanley's work show that it had humanitarian and economic as well as geographical value. He was the first to give us an approximately accurate idea of the form and size of Victoria Nyanza, the second largest of fresh-water lakes; he revealed the Congo Basin, of which we had no conception, as surpassed in size and in water tribute to the sea only by the Amazon system; he threaded the gloomy and almost impenetrable mazes of the forest belt, larger than most of our States; he made over four hundred treaties with native

chiefs who learned to know him as a man who kept his word, and the relations of friendship and confidence which he established paved the way for the teacher, the merchant, and the colonial governments of Europe. he studied the peoples and the economic resources from sea to sea through tropical Africa and incessantly proclaimed that these peoples were capable of development, and that these resources were

THE LATE SIR HENRY MORTON STANLEY.
(Born in Wales, 1841. Died in London, May 10, 1904.)

worth the world's seeking; he called for missionary volunteers to go to Uganda, where to-day there are ninety thousand professing Christians, three hundred and twenty churches, and fifty thousand persons able to read; he preached the gospel of humanity to the natives, used fire-arms against them, alas! but only on the comparatively few occasions when the existence of his expeditions was at stake; and in his dealings with them he set an example of patience, mercy, and justice that has not always been emulated. For over twenty years, he saw the African movement impelled, not only by his own hands, but also by ceaseless reinforcements of strong men and mighty influences; and he lived fourteen years longer to see white agents of the leading European nations firmly established in nearly every nook and corner of the continent.

HE SAW THE SUCCESS OF HIS OWN LABORS.

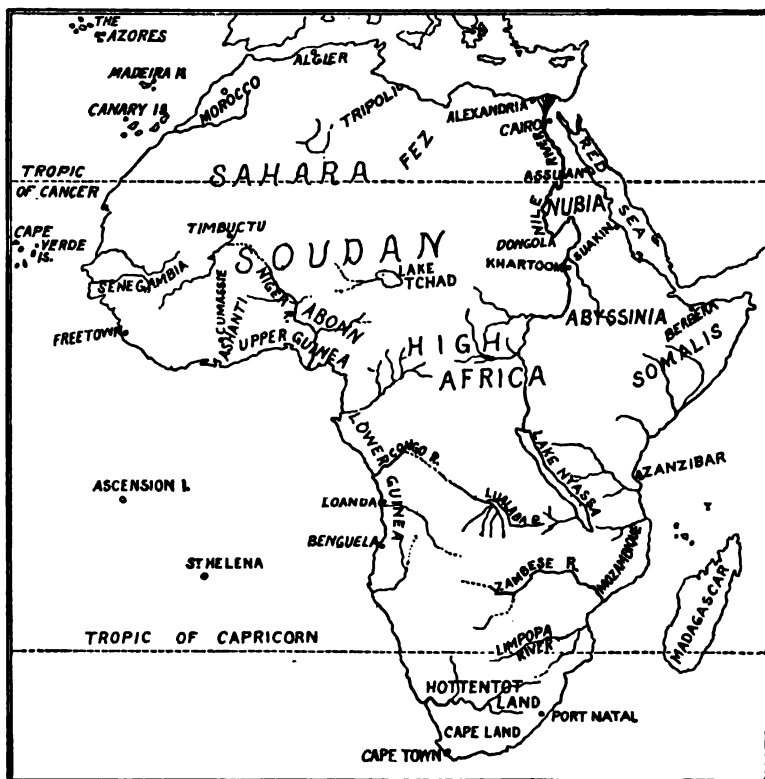
Few African pioneers were so fortunate as Stanley. Livingstone never knew the flame he had kindled, and died near the fountain-head of the Congo, believing he was at the sources

of the Nile. Rebmann passed away discredited because the world was skeptical of the truth he told of the snow which crowns the culminating peak of Africa. Nearly all that the earliest geographers learned about inner Africa was sponged off the maps by wise men of the eighteenth century, who believed scarcely a word of it. It is not clear to-day that the Ruwenzori range of Stanley is not the famous "Mountains of the Moon of Ptolemy."

We can scarcely realize that thirty years ago, when Stanley started inland from Zanzibar, there was a zone extending east and west across Africa from ten degrees north to about five degrees south of the equator that was absolutely unknown except for thin fringes along the coasts and bordering the Nile,—that a man might then have started from the Orange River, in South Africa, and traveled north for forty-five hundred miles through Central Africa without crossing an explorer's track excepting the four routes of Livingstone and the Portuguese travelers, and having continually, to the right and left of him, from five hundred to over two thousand miles of country that a modern explorer had never entered. All that was known of the vast wastes of the Sahara from near the Atlantic to a little west of the Nile was along five narrow routes.

AFRICA AS IT IS KNOWN TO-DAY.

If we contrast what was known of Africa and what was being done there thirty years ago with present conditions, we shall understand what is meant by the African movement. The Sahara may be taken as an impressive illustration, because desert-exploration might be expected to lag behind. Stanley saw, last fall, several contoured maps of a large region in the heart of the Sahara, north of the Ahaggar Mountains. They were the result of levelings and trigonometrical surveys. The cartographers used the same processes to show the surface forms of the desert that our own surveyors employ in the fine topographic maps they are making. Saharan



Reproduced from Stieler's "Hand Atlas," published in Vienna in 1850.

AFRICA AS KNOWN IN 1850.

exploration is advancing at a remarkable rate because the French have discarded their slow baggage camels and are employing camels that are specially fitted and trained for fast travel and can cover three times as much ground in a day as the ordinary pack animal. French expeditions, therefore, are traveling lightly laden because they can quickly reach fresh sources of food and water. Within the past two years, they have been moving in all directions, and have found new centers for date and grain raising, and new pasturage for the camel industry. The most frightful waste in the world will in time be adequately mapped and turned to better account than was thought to be possible a few years ago.

When the world first heard of Stanley, no one knew where the Niger came from. Its middle and its lower course was known, but it was believed it could never be navigated more than five hundred miles from the sea, on account of rapids. But Major Toutée and Captain Lenfant have taken the Niger out of the category of rivers in which rapids offer insuperable obstacles to navigation. Lenfant has carried five hundred thousand pounds of freight from the sea to the Upper Niger without taking it off the river, and, with some improvements, it is expected that the Niger will be used as a freight-carrier for about two thousand miles. Captain Lenfant has again returned from Africa with the solution of another hydrographic conundrum. It has been rumored for many years that in two or three months of the wet season there was direct water communication between Lake Chad and the Atlantic, and Lenfant has obtained proof of the fact. He has found that for about three months in the year the Tiburi depression,—a long, narrow trough to the south of Lake Chad,—is the gathering-ground for waters flowing west to the Niger and east to the Chad system. Unfortunately, a series of falls and rapids interrupts this extensive waterway for about twenty miles, but by transporting his steamboat in pieces around the obstruction he was able to float it from the



AFRICA AS KNOWN IN 1904.

Atlantic to Lake Chad; and he says that this discovery will greatly reduce the cost of transporting supplies from France to the French settlements on Lake Chad.

These are merely illustrations of the interesting nature and economic importance of hundreds of discoveries about African rivers that have been made within the past three decades.

Long after Stanley first crossed Africa, the Chinde branch of the Zambesi delta was discovered, so broad and deep that ocean vessels may ascend it and exchange cargoes. It had always been thought that a land portage from the sea to above the delta would be necessary, but since 1889 we have had other views as to the availability of the Zambesi for commerce. It has been found, only in recent years, that the Jub and the Tana rivers of East Africa may be made highways for small steamboats for several hundred miles. In a continent that is almost destitute of good natural harbors, it was no small discovery, some twenty years ago, to find that the mouth of the Beira River, in Portuguese East Africa, offers ample facilities for large shipping; so the port of Beira has arisen in the wilderness, and trains are now running between

this town, Fort Salisbury, in Mashonaland, and Cape Town.

GRIDIRONED WITH EXPLORERS' ROUTES.

Africa is to-day so gridironed with routes of explorers that it is impossible to lay them down in a way to be followed clearly on any map of comparatively small scale. They are least numerous in the Libyan Desert and from Cape Guardafui ("the Horn of Africa") to the Nile. But several most efficient explorers have revealed every prominent feature of the wide region between Guardafui and Lake Rudolf. The last great region, outside the northern desert, to give up its secrets was that between Lake Rudolf and the Nile, which has now been crossed by five expeditions from Rudolf and Victoria Nyanza.

We can scarcely conceive of the enormous work that has been done by the army of explorers. Fully one hundred of them have been engaged in the Congo Basin alone. The largest map yet made of Africa was based upon eighteen hundred route maps. The nations that acquired possessions in Africa have for years been spying out the land, and this eager desire to know all about the new territories, their inhabitants, and resources has resulted in an aggregate of geographic achievement such as the world never saw before in the same length of time. The public has seen little of it, excepting the results that have been generalized on our atlas sheets. Many of the most active explorers, like Delcommune and Grenfell, who have traveled more extensively in the Congo Basin than any others, have written no books. Their reports are seen in the publications of the geographical societies, are issued, with maps, by the various colonial offices, or are still unpublished in government bureaus. A few illustrations of this great work of minute exploration must here suffice.

When Stanley began his work, practically nothing was known of the hinterland of the long coast of the Gulf of Guinea excepting in the Niger valley. It was white in our atlases, excepting where place was found for such mystifications as the Kong Mountains, which were expunged from the maps in 1887. For several years, the Germans in the Cameroons and the French in their possessions have kept many surveying parties busy in the hinterland. The Germans have recorded their work on large and beautiful maps, showing the contours of the surface, the forest areas, the savannahs, the plateaus, the water-courses, the native hamlets, and the paths connecting them. The French maps are equally detailed, but not so finely executed. Few of us have seen these maps, and it is impossible to include much of their detail on our

small-scale atlas sheets; but they are within reach of all whose interests may require them. Last year, the Germans issued a map showing the distribution of metals and other minerals over the vast region of German East Africa. The trigonometrical survey of the entire coast line of Victoria Nyanza will probably be completed this year, and it will then be one of the best mapped of lakes.

Thirty years ago, Africa lagged far behind all the rest of the world. Most of it is to-day far better known and more adequately mapped than was inner North America a century ago. Its mapping is much superior to that of South America, excepting along the seaboard of the Latin republics and in Argentina.

PROGRESS OF A MORAL AND MATERIAL KIND.

The moral and the material progress of Africa has been commensurate with the splendid results of the scientific studies. Unhappily, great evils attend all white enterprises among barbarous races. They are not to be belittled or excused. But all careful students of African policies and events believe that the mischief wrought and the evil done are, after all, but a drop in the bucket as compared with the seeds for good that have been sown. Are they not justified in this faith? Is it not a bright omen for the future of Africa that cannibalism and human sacrifices now figure in the criminal codes; that the practice of the demoralizing arts of fetichism is a misdemeanor; that the export slave trade has been stopped; that raiding for slaves in the Congo Basin has absolutely ceased, and is now being suppressed in central Sudan; that the despotism of the Mahdist régime has been supplanted by benevolent government; that many thousands of natives have learned that there is good in labor and are working for hire?

It may take a century to even lay the foundations for Africa's future,—but how colossal is the work already done! Over one hundred steamboats and tugs, and many barges, are afloat on the Upper Congo, where Stanley, twenty-seven years ago, ran the gantlet of cannibal tribes. The Cape to Cairo railroad will reach the Zambesi this summer. There are now over fifteen thousand miles of railroad tracks in Africa, and the end of this decade will see twenty-five thousand miles. Gold fields are opening from the Transvaal to Katanga, north of the Zambesi. Colonial governments are experimenting with all crops that give promise of success. Faith in Africa is inspiring the wonderful work; and the natives themselves will be among the chief beneficiaries when their continent comes more fully into the light.

THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN AND THIS YEAR'S JUBILEE.

BY WILLIAM B. SHAW.

THE commencement celebration, this month, of the University of Wisconsin, at the capital city of Madison, on the shores of beautiful Lake Mendota, is an occasion quite out of the class of traditional academic anniversaries. Besides the formal installation of President Van Hise, himself a son of the university, there will be an appropriate commemoration of the graduation of the first class, a half-century ago. This will be the first occasion of the kind in the comparatively brief history of Western State education.

With one of her two first graduates still living, Wisconsin can hardly claim maturity,—much less the dignity of age,—by the side of her older sisters, the universities of the Eastern seaboard. Harvard celebrated her quarter-millennial in 1886, Princeton her sesqui-centennial in 1896, and Yale her bicentennial in 1901, and yet, with all the prestige conferred by generations of loyal alumni, not one of the three began her jubilee year with as large a constituency of students as greets Wisconsin on her semi-centennial anniversary. Harvard, Yale, and Princeton are national institutions. Their students come from every part of the United States, and even from foreign lands. Wisconsin, on the other hand, like the State universities generally, excepting Virginia and Michigan, draws few students from beyond the State boundaries. More than 82 per cent. of the three thousand young men and women who throng the university halls at Madison are Wisconsin-born. This one fact that Yale's twenty-five hundred are gathered from practically every State and Territory in the Union, not to speak of the islands of the sea, while an equivalent number of Wisconsin's students are virtually the sons and daughters of a single commonwealth, which itself completed its first half-century as a member of the Union only six years ago, is enough to arrest the attention.

A PEOPLE'S COLLEGE.

It should be borne in mind that the population of the State that maintains this university has only lately passed the two-million mark,—not much more than half the population of New York City. Graduates of the older Eastern colleges sometimes find it hard to account for the

PRESIDENT CHARLES E. VAN HISE.

(President Van Hise was born at Fulton, Wis., in 1867, and was graduated from the university in 1879. He is the first native of the State and the first graduate of the university to be called to the presidency of that institution.)

enthusiastic support that the higher education receives in the comparatively sparsely settled States of our middle West; but those States have founded and developed their universities, not for any one class in the community, not with a view to the creation of an aristocracy of learning, but simply and solely as the schools of the people,—as truly such as “the little red school-house” of the country cross-roads. The State university belongs to all the people of the State; all are taxed for its support. The poor man's son does not feel in the slightest degree that any special privilege is conferred upon him when he is admitted to the university class-rooms; for is it not his *right*, as a citizen of the State, to avail himself of what the university has to offer?

Law Building.

South Hall.

University Hall.

North Hall.

Engineering Building.

THE UPPER CAMPUS, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

(The grounds of the university extend for more than a mile along the shore of Lake Mendota. The portion shown in this picture is University Hill, rising to a height of one hundred feet above the lake.)

The rich man's son has precisely the same rights, and no others. Thus it comes about that Thomas Jefferson's ideal of Democracy in education is realized as completely in these State universities as anywhere on the planet, and because this is so the universities have a popular support that may well be envied by the most famous seats of learning in the old world.

HALF A MILLION A YEAR FOR HIGHER EDUCATION.

In the case of Wisconsin, a mistaken policy in the early years dissipated the government-land grants that might have developed into a university endowment of magnificent proportions. The whole cost of maintenance, therefore, has fallen on the taxpayers. At present, the university is

THE UNIVERSITY BUILDINGS FROM LAKE MENDOTA.

(The large building at the left is the armory [gymnasium]; the university boathouse occupies the center of the foreground; directly back of that is Science Hall.)

HISTORICAL LIBRARY BUILDING.

(This building was erected by the State at a cost of \$220,000. Architecturally, it ranks second only to the Library of Congress, at Washington, among American public-library buildings. It is occupied jointly by the Library of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin. 122,000 bound volumes and 120,000 pamphlets, and the university library, 36,000 volumes and 30,000 pamphlets. University students have the use of the Historical Society's valuable collections.)

a charge upon the State of nearly \$500,000 a year, representing, if capitalized at 4 per cent., an endowment of \$12,500,000, a sum exceeded by only three university foundations in this country,—Harvard, Columbia, and the Leland Stanford Junior. Of the State universities, only

THE ARMORY (GYMNASIUM) AND BOATHOUSE ON THE SHORE OF LAKE MENDOTA.

(This lake is a beautiful body of water, about six miles long by four miles wide. It affords a fine practice course for the 'varsity and freshman crews, which row every year against the Cornell and other Eastern crews at Poughkeepsie. The lake will be the scene of a brilliant water *fête* on the evening of "Inauguration Day," June 7.)

Michigan, California, and Illinois enjoy a larger annual income. Furthermore, the State's investment in buildings and equipment for the university is approximately \$2,000,000. On the university grounds, at Madison, are twenty-five important buildings, which house a great number of laboratories, special libraries, and other

higher education, he would probably hear very little about the languages, or the higher mathematics, or history, or any of the other subjects that worry the high-school graduate, but a great deal about Professor Babcock and his milk test, and the great value to the dairy interests of the State of the instruction and experimentation

GROUP OF BUILDINGS OF THE COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE.

(Beyond these buildings lies the experimental farm of two hundred and twenty acres, adjoining the university campus.)

apparatus adapted to the demands of up-to-date scientific investigation.

"THE EDUCATIONAL LADDER" AND THE FARMING INTERESTS OF THE STATE.

The system of accredited high schools and academies, nowhere more fully developed than in Wisconsin, also fosters the close relationship between people and university so noticeable throughout the middle West. The successive freshman classes at Madison are recruited from more than two hundred of these accredited schools, each one of which is under the inspection of the university faculty and has frequently presented to it the university's methods, plans, and ideals. Then, too, the fact that a large proportion of the principals of these schools are themselves university graduates has its influence in keeping the interests of higher and secondary instruction throughout the State closely united, and in keeping the farmers, manufacturers, and business and professional men who pay the taxes well informed about the university's work and needs.

But if one were to ask the first intelligent Wisconsin farmer that he met for his justification of the State's vast expenditures on the

in the agricultural school at Madison. This school, originating from the Morrill land grant of 1862, has always been an integral part of the university. It offers unusual opportunities to young men desiring to become experts in any branch of agriculture, while its stores of modernized knowledge, gained from scientific experiment, are placed at the service of every farmer in the State, through a well-developed system of farmers' institutes. This sort of thing has no place in the traditional conception of college or university, but from the Wisconsin farmer's point of view it is precisely the kind of "higher education" that the State should provide, since it ministers directly to the State's material interests.

To obtain training as an engineer, the Wisconsin boy no longer finds it necessary to journey to the great technical schools of the East. The College of Mechanics and Engineering at Madison is organized on similar lines, and is admirably equipped for advanced work.

GREAT SCHOOLS OF HISTORY AND POLITICS.

And yet, beyond the State's borders, the university is known for its devotion to pure science and "the humanities" quite as much as

for its contributions to material progress. The Historical Society's Library, by all odds the finest collection of works relating to American history west of the Alleghanies, has furnished a powerful incentive to the development of a vigorous school of history. Graduate students of the older Eastern universities go to Madison to study with Professor Turner, who in turn is called to a Harvard lectureship. Wisconsin students find in their own State the very best facilities to be had anywhere for advanced work in American institutional history. Not less renowned is the School of Economics and Politics, under the directorship of Prof. Richard T. Ely, who has attracted graduate students from far and near.

There is also a School of Education, embracing graduate courses and a department of university extension. The College of Law offers a three years' course similar to that of the leading Eastern law schools.

AN EMINENT GEOLOGIST FOR PRESIDENT.

The scientific work of the university has always been strong,—notably the courses in geology. Professor Van Hise, who has left the chair of geology to accept the presidency, was associated with the late Professor Irving on the Wisconsin Geological Survey, and since the death of that eminent geologist has had charge of the Lake Superior division of the United States Survey. His studies in rock metamorphism, published by the Government, have won the recognition of geologists the world over. This June celebration at Madison marks the formal inauguration of Professor Van Hise as president of the university. He has already officiated in that position for more than a year, quietly demonstrating his possession of many qualities that distinguish the wise and clear-headed executive, whether in scientific investigation or in the broader responsibilities of a university presidency. In a line of succession dignified by such names as those of John Bascom, Thomas C. Chamberlin (also a geologist), and the late Charles Kendall Adams, a man of Wisconsin birth and education now for the first time takes his place.

UNIVERSITY HALL (1899), WITH NEW EXTENSION—TO THE LEFT.

(A corresponding extension to the north is projected.)

THE STUDENT LIFE.

The student body of this distinctively "fresh-water university" exhibits many of the characteristics of American college boys in the tide-water area. Fraternities have a strong hold on Madison, although some of their Greek-letter symbols would be quite unfamiliar in the older Eastern colleges. Here, as at Harvard and Cornell, the operation of the elective system has probably furthered the decline of what used to be known as "class spirit." Undeniably, the student communities of all the State universities are more democratic than those of the older institutions. At Madison, one finds comparatively few of the sons of the very rich. The families of well-to-do professional and business men are well represented; but boys are not "sent" to the State university as they are "sent" to Yale or Princeton. As a rule, when a young man comes to Madison to enter the university he comes for a very definite purpose. The same thing is to be said of the young woman coming to Madison, for the university, like her sister institutions in the middle West, is coeducational. Living expenses are decidedly lower at Madison than at any of the great Eastern colleges or technical schools.

In athletics, Wisconsin is somewhat in advance of most of the other State universities. Hers is the only rowing crew west of the Alleghanies that has challenged the supremacy of

the tide-water college crews in recent years. Cornell, Pennsylvania, and Columbia can testify to the pluck and brawn and staying qualities of the Wisconsin men, as exhibited in the yearly contest over the Poughkeepsie course.

THE JOINT DEBATES.

One form of student competition, however, has a preëminence at Madison to which even athletics has been forced to yield. The annual joint debate between representative teams of the two rival literary societies is an event in the university world with which nothing on the calendars of Yale or Harvard or Columbia is at all comparable. A full year is spent in preparation for this contest. The debaters are "in training" throughout this period,—like the members of the Yale football eleven,—and the amount of research involved would suffice to prepare a "merger" case for argument before the Supreme Court. Questions of public interest in the field of politics or economics are usually chosen, and the fact that the whole university

community is in suspense, as it were, until the last speaker has had his say and the judges have rendered their decision is only another evidence that the Western student takes himself very seriously.

DISTINGUISHED ALUMNI.

In such an atmosphere men who have since rendered good service to their State and their country passed their impressionable years,—John C. Spooner, the brilliant and vigorous leader of the United States Senate; former Senator and Secretary of the Interior William F. Vilas; Gov. Robert M. La Follette, who years ago won a reputation in Congress as one of the ablest speakers on the Republican side of the House. The university's graduates are well represented in every Congressional delegation that Wisconsin sends to Washington, in each successive legislature of the State, and on the bench. Can the people of Wisconsin spend their half-million a year in any way that will yield richer returns to the civic life of the commonwealth?

SENDING A SON TO COLLEGE.

BY CHARLES F. THWING, LL.D.

(President of Western Reserve University and Adelbert College, Cleveland.)

IT may be confessed at once that certain parents are in grave doubt about sending a son to college. The parents who are in grave doubt are not usually those who are directly touched by the nobler academic tradition. They are those who are moved immediately and powerfully by the noises and extravagances of the college campus. The athletic interests of the college make to them an appeal, but the appeal is not one favoring a higher education. The declensions of the nouns of football and of baseball represent the more conspicuous elements of the grammar of college life, as this grammar is printed in the newspapers. Such statements rather repel from than win many homes to the college. The badness, too, and whatever there is of good in what is known as hazing offers an appeal forbidding and irritating. The general air of carelessness or of indolence which rests with delightful jauntiness on the shoulders of some college students not infrequently arouses a feeling of disgust in the souls of many fathers and mothers. The contrast existing between the steadiness of labor, the regularity of service, and the general experiences of the life of the

young boy engaged in business, and the freedom of life,—a freedom which is often sadly abused,—of the college years is mightily significant to the heart of many a parent. All these conditions, either direct or atmospheric, existing with greater or less impressiveness in all colleges, serve to cause the parent who may lack a large experience with life's phenomena to say that his boy, at least, shall have no part in any such nonsense and outlandishness. Life is too short, work too serious, money too costly, to permit him to send his son to an institution which allows such practices and which tolerates such conditions.

One must not be reluctant to confess that parents do have not a little ground for drawing such inferences. The student does not make a worthy appeal to the community when he is in undress uniform. It should, however, be acknowledged that the community usually prefers to see the student in undress uniform, as it also may be said that at certain times the student himself prefers to be seen in undress uniform. This uniform, as manifest in the baggy football trousers and the medieval headgear of both baseball

and football, is far more picturesque than the scholar's cap and gown.

Yet there is an interpretation of academic conditions which some parents are inclined to make of quite another sort. The parents who make an utterly different interpretation are usually those who are willing to recognize that the university is still in its storm-and-stress period. They know that the golden age lies not only ahead, but far ahead. They appreciate the fact that youth has its time of play, and that into the time of play it is well for much,—of course, not too much,—play to come. They know that the American college cannot hope for development altogether different from the development of English and German and Swedish universities. They, furthermore, are obliged to acknowledge that many, not all, newspapers whence most people get their ideas of the life, of the college, are more eager for the sensational than for the picturesque, for the picturesque than for the impressive, and for the impressive than for the simple, truthful interpretation of college affairs.

The wiser parent, therefore, is inclined to consider the whole college life in large and generous ways, as he thinks of asking his boy to live this life for three or four years. When in ways large and generous the parent, therefore, does consider the question, what does he find? Does he find that which makes it worth while to oblige himself to send his son to college?

To this question I wish at once to give in answer a very simple but positive affirmative. The reasons for the answer I shall try to interpret.

The college represents a personal process and result which I may call self-discovery. The student comes to himself. His strengths, his weaknesses, his limitations, his purposes, his ambitions become more or less well known to him. I find that the Freshmen think they know themselves. Not a few enter with a definite idea of their life's calling. Doubtless, in certain cases it may be well to have a definite idea of one's future vocation, for definiteness of aim promotes celerity of endeavor. But such definite conceptions usually prove to be false. I have known many cases in which boys come to college with definite ideas of becoming ministers, doctors, lawyers, engineers. The intending ministers usually become engineers, and the intending engineers ministers. It is impossible to exaggerate the importance of self knowledge to any young man. His supreme and ultimate choice depends upon such knowledge. His happiness and social efficiency depend in no small degree upon such knowledge. Such knowledge the college gives through its general processes, its studies, and its associations. All its constituent

elements are contributing forces to such self-knowledge. Self-discoveries are of the utmost significance for humanity and for society, as well as for the individual immediately concerned. For no greater misfortune can befall the race than for its members to seek to serve it in ways and under conditions in which this service is hesitant and reluctant. No greater advantage can befall the race than the putting into it every year scores and thousands of men who are able to direct its energies by wisest methods unto results which are nothing less than magnificent.

This self-discovery may not be simply a process touching one's industrial or social efficiency; it may involve a process of a nature more fundamental. It may be the finding of one's self as a personal being. It may be a coming to a consciousness of one's self which is nothing less than revolutionary in one's whole being and character. It represents self-reverence and self-control, as well as self-knowledge. It means a putting of one's self into relationships with other men, with history, with future endeavors, with the world. It means the transmutation of playfulness into work, of triviality, or even frivolity, into seriousness, of rules of conduct into principles of consistent and noble character. In a word, the college boy finds himself. Such a finding the parent may, indeed, rejoice over. In making such a discovery, the college has helped the father's boy and the boy's father in ways most direct and most efficient.

The parent, moreover, soon learns that his son is not only finding himself; he is also finding life. He comes to appreciate relationships. If it is a mark of the untrained mind to see only one thing in much, it is a mark of the trained mind to see many things and much in one. "Why did you send your boy to college?" I asked the president of a great railroad. "Because he will have hard problems to solve. The college training will fit him to solve those problems." The problems which American life is to solve in the future are of tremendous complexity, perplexity, and comprehensiveness. They are social, financial, governmental, industrial. The massing of the great forces of life is occurring in the United States. The continuance of the process of combination and consolidation is to be limited only by the finding of men who can guide and control these great movements. The men who give most promise for such guiding and controlling are the college men, for they are trained minds. They are trained to think. They are able to weigh evidence. They can determine values and assess truths. They can reduce a multitude of discordant phenomena to the one principle which unites all into a harmonious whole. They are

able to detect the irrelevant, and to point out the essential and necessary. They can discriminate motives, and show how motives become movements.

It is, of course, superficial, and perhaps superficialous, to say that college graduates have no monopoly of such conditions and forces. Greater men who are not college graduates are found in the active work of the modern world than are most men who are college graduates. The college is not the only force that helps to form humanity and the individual. Let us be thankful that there are other forces, many and most influential. But it is to be said that the college is a force which, added to the natural force of many men, has helped to constitute their great worth. But I am only urging that the more complex conditions of modern life are making more imperative the need of men of the widest, deepest, highest, most enriching education, and of the most disciplinary training. The great business men of the future are to be better trained than were their fathers. As, says Mr. Groser in the report of the Mosely Educational Commission, "It is a general opinion that the self-made rich man, in the sense of the man lacking direct, systematic education, will have disappeared by the next generation" (p. 184).

Yet the father is sure to find that the college will give to his son something besides a capacity for commercial or industrial leadership. This something is a gift which not a few would regard as of importance superior to commercial or industrial mastery. The college will help a boy to a more satisfying life. It will open to him fields of meditation and reflection, fresh and inviting, which once would have seemed to him barren and brown. It will aid him in finding himself least alone when most alone. It will help him to clearer thinking, to purer feeling, to stronger willing; but the thinking will also be richer as well as clearer, the feeling will be deeper as well as purer, and the will indeed will be more gracious as well as stronger. The alabaster-box of life will become to him more precious; and all that humanity has saved out of its struggle for the pure, the true, the good, and the beautiful will be dearer to his heart, more holy in his will, and more effective in and through his whole being. Literature, architecture, friendship, music, nature, will speak to him in more varied and finer tones. The inspiration they give will be more impressive and the solace that they offer more consoling.

In the enriching of one's life a father sending his son to college may give a special value to the word friendship. For it is a word most significant in the college language. I have

known a wise father to say, "I will send my boy to college even for the sake of the friendships he will make!" College friendships! What a world of love, of associations, and of associates they open! They are wrought into literature, as well as into life. The greatest poem of the last century commemorates a college friendship. There are no friends so natural, so genuine, so warm, so true, so satisfying, as those formed in college. In life's failures, college friends are the ones who still love us. In life's triumphs, their congratulations give the most contentment. The father may, indeed, well think of the friends whom he will give to his son by opening to him the college doors.

But the father will also learn that through the college he is able to fit his son not only for self-knowledge and a knowledge of life, but also for the richest service to the community. His son will become a better citizen by reason of his academic residence. I do not fail to recognize that the impression prevails that the so-called higher education may so lift the man above the uneducated that he is unwilling to try to be of common public service. Neither do I fail to recognize the fact that education refines the taste as well as informs the judgment. I am painfully aware that examples can be found of graduates who seem to glory in their remoteness and aloofness from common interests. But notwithstanding all such conditions and examples, the fact remains that a college education usually not only prepares a man to be of better service to the people, but also inspires him with a wish to be of better service. The education opens his eyes to opportunities to which he would otherwise have been blind. It gives to him breadth and depth of sympathy with the community, as well as increases his power of meeting the demands which it justly makes. It not only gives him a richer manhood, it creates in him a finer citizenship.

The father, therefore, who is obliged to consider whether he will or will not send his son to college should look at all the facts in the eye. He should not be content with a superficial interpretation of the superficial interests of the college. He should make, first, a true and just interpretation of the fundamental relations which education bears to the higher interests of the community and to the noblest purposes of his son's career. When a parent has completed such a survey and interpretation he will find that in most, not by any means in all, cases he cannot make so good a use of three or four years of his son's life, or so good a use of a few hundred or, it may be, of a few thousand dollars, as by sending his son to a first-rate college.

MAURUS JÓKAI, HUNGARIAN PATRIOT AND WRITER.

BY ALEXANDER HEGEDÜS, JR.

(Mr. Hegedüs is a nephew of the late Maurus Jókai.)

ONE of the most famous characters in Hungarian history passed away on May 4. Maurus Jókai, patriot, statesman, novelist, poet, painter, and sculptor, was born, February 19, 1825, in Komorn, Hungary. His family was one of the oldest and most noble of the realm, as is proved by the termination *y* which originally appeared in the name; but in the national revolution of 1848, the first democratic wave in Hungary, the young patriot put aside this sign of nobility and wrote his name in the simple form, Jókai.

Jókai was the last of the band of Hungarian patriots, among whom were Kossuth, Petöfi, and others. Early in March, 1848, Jókai headed that band of earnest young men who contended for the freedom of the press. They were completely successful, and the first production of a free press in Hungary was Petöfi's poem "Hungarians, Arise!" which was the first trumpet-blast of the revolution. Jókai read it from the steps of the printing-office to the assembled multitude, and then made one of his great speeches. This was one of the first impulses of the revolution, out of which arose Louis Kossuth and Hungarian liberty. It was an awful struggle which Hungary waged for two long years with Austria and Russia, and the vital force of the nation was almost drained.

MAURUS JÓKAI.

(From a photograph taken especially for the REVIEW OF REVIEWS.)

Kossuth, Petöfi, Jókai, and the other heroes fled for their lives, most of them escaping over the sea. Maurus Jókai remained in his own country, in concealment, being kept alive by food sent secretly by his devoted wife. Madame Jókai, who was Rósa Laborfalvy,

was the best tragic actress of the time, and her name was famous all over Europe. When the revolution broke out, the books of the leaders were issued by the free press and produced on the stage. In these and other patriotic plays, the first rôle was always taken by Rósa Laborfalvy. "Her voice, like the sound of a rich, voluminous organ, drew the spectators, and held them spellbound by her passionate enthusiasm."

On that celebrated 15th of March, 1848, she scored such a remarkable success that the Young Magyar party, of which Jókai was the leader, sent a deputation to express to her the congratulations of the people. There on the stage she received the deputation, and pinned the national cockade on the coat of its leader. At the close of the revolution, during the period of despotism, Jókai lived in concealment, occupying his time with his work of sculpture, the beautiful ivory bust of his wife dating from this time. He wrote also, under the pseudonym of "Iago." Upon the proclamation of amnesty by the king, he resumed his own name, and in 1868, when the federation between Austria and Hungary was perfected and liberty was won, Jókai was elected a member of the first parliament. He held his seat in the lower house of this body for twenty-eight years. In 1897, the Emperor, Francis Joseph, appointed him a member of the House of Lords. Madame Jókai died in 1886, and from that time the novelist lived in retirement in his beautiful villa at Budapest. He appeared but seldom in public, one of the dramatic moments in his later years being his speech at the funeral of Kossuth. Standing by the coffin of his friend, with whom he had fought for the freedom of Hungary, he said: "I am the last of that band to knock at the portals of death, which by me will soon be closed and never reopened."

Maurus Jókai might have been eminent as a painter or a sculptor. He certainly achieved great eminence as a writer. His first work was a drama entitled "The Jewish Boy," which appeared in 1842 and was highly praised by the Hungarian Academy of Science. He was unde-

cided whether to make his career that of a writer or a painter. He was predisposed in favor of painting, and studied art with all the enthusiasm of his youth; but when, in 1846, his story "Working Days" won great renown for him, he felt himself, to use his own words, "affiliated to the devil of literature." Most of his stories which have not national themes for their subject treat of Turkish life, and they have made his name famous all over Europe. In 1854, he brought out his really wonderful novel, "An Hungarian Nabob," which fairly enraptured his countrymen. They made pilgrimages from all over the country to Budapest and waited patiently for hours before his residence merely to see him cross the street. In the same year appeared "The Carpathian Sultan," a sequel to the story of "An Hungarian Nabob." Into both these stories are woven much of Hungarian history,—so much that they have never been satisfactorily translated into English. It is in these two novels that the great imaginative and descriptive power of Jókai reaches its zenith. He considered "An Hungarian Nabob" by far his best work. A few years later came the novel "What We Are Growing Old For," almost as powerful a story as "An Hungarian Nabob."

In fifty years, Jókai wrote three hundred and fifty-one novels. Within a few years of his death appeared one of his best works, "The Yellow Rose." This story, written in his old age, and with literally trembling hands, displays the same brilliant fancy as the works of his youth. He seldom left home during his later years, or even the retirement of his study; for his books are really the outcome of close association with himself rather than with the outdoor world of nature. It was his custom to arise at 5 o'clock in the morning and work, with but a few hours of interruption, until sunset.

By 1861, no less than one hundred and sixty-

RÓSA LABORFALVY (MRS. JÓKAI).
(At the height of her dramatic career.)

one volume bearing his signature (including new editions) had appeared. After this, from twenty to thirty volumes (including new editions) appeared per year. At the time of his death, he was writing short serial novels for weekly papers and composing a drama for the national theater at Budapest. In 1888, he celebrated his jubilee—his fifty years of labor—and the whole nation took part in the rejoicings, presenting him with many rare and valuable gifts.

Jókai's first work,—the drama entitled "The Jewish Boy,"—was not represented on the stage; but during the revolution, and later, his patriotic plays fed the flame of national sentiment. His successes on the stage, strangely enough, have not been attained by his dramas themselves, but by the dramatization of his stories. The most successful, probably, has been the play entitled "The Gold Man," based on his novel "Timar's Two Worlds," a wonderful specimen of vivid imagination and rich coloring.

Jókai's success as painter and sculptor was no mean one, although his literary eminence eventually led him to neglect his talent in that direction. At the close of the revolution, he

became editor of a political newspaper, and one of his own articles caused him to be imprisoned. While confined, he again sought consolation in the chisel and the brush. His paintings are chiefly landscapes, and his sculpture work, copies from Greek models.

Gardening was the hobby of the great Hungarian. For many years he lived in his own villa, on one of the hills surrounding Budapest and commanding a fine view of the city below. There the choicest roses bloomed, always planted and tended by his own hand. In 1896, during the millennium celebration of Hungary, he won the first prize for the fruit which he had raised himself.

Jókai's powerful literary style is peculiar to himself, and this alone would make his books immortal. He has enriched the Hungarian language with many new words. His plots are mostly drawn from significant events in the history of his country. It was an American critic who spoke of his Turkish stories as "mixed with blood and roses," and it was an English poet who said of him :

"God sent him for the glory of Hungary
And the wonder of East and West."

From the *Graphic*, London.

COSSACK SCOUTS ALONG THE LINE OF THE TRANS-SIBERIAN RAILROAD, TRACKED BY WOLVES.

THE COSSACKS: RUSSIA'S UNIQUE TROOPERS.

BY JOSEPH A. BAER.

(Lieutenant Sixth United States Cavalry, member of China Relief Expedition.)

TO Russian diplomacy and Russian organization belong the credit of one solution of the problem of satisfactorily handling a subject race. In the heart of the most absolute despotism known to modern times can be found the remains of a once free republic, now utilized in pushing forward and guarding Russia's ever-advancing frontier. Instead of curbing the turbulent Cossack tribes when she absorbed them, Russia has, by fostering their warlike spirit, turned them into an ever-ready, self-trained advance guard for her enormous empire.

The derivation of their name sheds light upon their origin and early history. "Cossack" is of Asiatic origin, and formerly signified robber or

freebooter. They sprang from bands of military adventurers, who, upon the death of Genghis Khan, mingled with the bands of Tartars,—remnants of his invading host,—and settled on the banks of the Dnieper, or in the marshes of the Don and the Volga. In the fourteenth century, these bands had formed themselves into two republics, and continued to harry the frontiers of Russia and Poland, or, as pirates, to ravage the shores of the Black Sea.

The confederation on the Don was subdued, in 1577, by Ivan the Terrible, who, when they demanded that a chief be appointed, gave them his heir apparent as *ataman*, or *hetman*. The confederation broke up: one band conquered

Siberia and presented it to the Czar; others settled on the Caspian frontier. Revolts occurred from time to time among those that remained, and numbers were deported to colonize the frontiers as they were successfully pushed forward.

The confederation on the Dnieper was an ally, in turn, of Russia, Lithuania, and Poland. The latter nation held them in subjection for some time, but in 1648 they threw off the yoke and became part of Russia. Their pastime was murder, their occupation war,—from the thirteenth century to the beginning of the eighteenth, the steppes of southern Russia were red with blood or blackened by the smoke of burning villages. When a chance for plunder presented itself, they offered their services to the neighboring states; when no outside foe was at hand, they turned their sword upon their kinsmen from mere lust of slaughter.

Pillaging, marauding, killing, these red wolves of the south were not quieted till Catherine the Great transplanted their ferocious energies to the Turkish frontier, in the Caucasus. As the frontier was pushed eastward to the Pacific and southeast toward India, entire towns, from the head-man down to the dogs and the cats, were transplanted into the new territory. These were formed into the tribes of Cossacks that take their names from the districts in which they were settled. The benevolent Czar permits all Cossacks to hold the land which they have cleared, settled upon, and defended against his enemies, merely asking in return universal service in the Russian army. This land is redistributed every six years, to keep pace with the change of population.

TRAINING AND REQUIREMENTS OF THE SERVICE.

Every Cossack is required to serve the Little Father twenty-four years,—three years in the Preparatory Class, twelve years in the Field Class, five years in the Reserve, and four years in the *Opoltchenié*. His training begins in his infancy. When forty days old, his mother takes him to the church, for the prayer of purification. When she returns, the father meets her on the threshold, takes the child, buckles a sword about his waist, and hands him back, congratulating the mother on having given birth to a Cossack. The cradle-songs by which the child is lulled to sleep are recitals of feats of arms of border warfare. At the age of three, he is taught to sit astride a horse; at five, he appears on the street on horseback, and joins with his young comrades in the mounted games. As he develops, the tribal traditions are ingrafted in his mind. They form the chief part of his education,—beyond his plow, he

knows of nothing but service in the army and war.

At the age of eighteen, he is enrolled and enters the Preparatory Class. The first year he renders no service, merely providing himself with a horse and all of his equipment, except his rifle, which is furnished by the government. In the autumn of the second year, his training begins, and is continued during the third, the man remaining in his own village. In the January following his third year, he enters the Field Class. The Field Class is divided into three periods, of four years each. While in the first period, he serves in one of the regiments or batteries that are maintained in peace. During the second period, he is considered on furlough, and must keep his equipment and horse in readiness for service. During the third, he merely keeps his equipment in order, the horse not being required. During each of the last two periods he is called out for nine weeks' training a year, and is liable to be sent wherever his services are needed. After completing this service in the Field Class, he passes into the Reserve. In this class he is required to maintain his equipment, and may be called out for three weeks' training per year.

After his service in the Reserve, he passes into the *Opoltchenié*, where he would be called out only under exceptional circumstances. Here he completes his twenty-four years' service, and is then free from all military liability. If he is called out in time of war, or is in service at the outbreak of hostilities, he must serve as long as he is wanted. This service is universal, the few who are exempt being the sole supporters of families, members of families reduced to extreme poverty, or members of the Guild of Merchants, who must pay a fine of three hundred rubles.* The Cossack receives pay only when on active service with his regiment, and then the princely sum of three rubles, forty-five kopecks per year, which in the war service is increased to six rubles, sixty kopecks.

THE COSSACK'S BUILD, ACCOUTERMENTS, AND MOUNT.

Much has been said of the stalwart Russian troops, and of the fine, tall Cossacks, with their fierce, energetic expression. Taking the figures of one of the yearly conscriptions for the entire army, out of 214,000 men 147,000 were under five feet four inches, and but 6,000 were five feet eight. The Cossack is slightly taller than the ordinary Russian, but does not average above five feet five as he stands in uniform. Instead of

* A ruble is about 51½ cents, American money, at current exchange rates, and is subdivided into 100 kopecks.

cocked over the right ear. In winter, the Cossack wears over his blouse a pelisse of sheepskin, and over this a great-coat of gray cloth, with a hood. The collar has two patches of cloth of the same color as the tribal facings. There are no buttons on his coat or blouse, hooks being used instead. With the overcoat,—and for full dress, with his blouse,—he wears a fur cap, *papakha*, much like a small busby. In summer, he has a cotton blouse, which is worn as a field uniform. In the China Relief Expedition this was of white, but it presented so conspicuous a target that the Russian Government has since changed the white to a light gray.

The Cossacks of the Kuban and the Terek still wear the native Caucasian dress. This consists of a black *icherkesska*, with red or blue shoulder-straps, a red or blue *besmet* and trousers, knee boots, and black conical sheepskin cap, with red or blue top. For winter, a felt coat and a fur cloak are added. The *icherkesska* is a close-fitting coat reaching below the knees, with cases on each side of the breast for cartridges. The *besmet* is a close-fitting waistcoat, such as was formerly worn by the Tartar tribes.

The Cossack is armed with a curved sword, or *shaska*, 3 feet 4 inches long, made without a guard. He carries a rifle slung behind his back, muzzle up, and a bayonet outside the sword scabbard. Noncommissioned officers carry

From photograph taken by authority of United States Government.
A COSSACK SERGEANT AND PRIVATE.

fierce energy, he gives the impression of good-natured indifference and stoicism. He is of rather heavy build, and every line of his uniform accentuates his stockiness.

All Cossacks, except those of the Kuban and the Terek, wear a loose double-breasted blouse. For the Orenburg regiments and the regiments of the Siberian tribes, this blouse is of dark green cloth; for all other regiments it is of dark blue. Shoulder-straps of colored cloth designate the various tribes, and numbers on the straps the regiments. The loose trousers, of the same color as the blouse, with stripes like the shoulder-straps, are worn tucked into the boots, which reach to the knee. The forage cap, bell-crowned and without peak or visor, is worn carefully

From photograph taken by authority of United States Government.

A COSSACK SERGEANT, SHOWING HORSE, SADDLE, AND ARRANGEMENT OF PACK.

that rivals that of our Western cow-pony. It is not so fast as the broncho, but is stronger, and its "rustling" powers, sharpened by the scarcity of pasturage on the Siberian waste, are simply marvelous. Anything put in front of it is fodder. One squadron in Peking, finding itself out of forage, fed its horses the wisdom of the Chinese sages with the rice-straw paper leaves of the tomes of an imperial library.

THE SOLDIER'S RATION.

The Cossack is as much of a "rustler" as his horse. He must be. His ration would scarcely be called bountiful by the American soldier. It consists of two pounds of flour, a quarter of a pound of groats, or crushed oats, and a little salt and tea per day. In war, seven ounces of meat and a quarter of a pint of spirits may be added from time to time, when specially ordered by the commander-in-chief. From flour and yeast the soldier prepares a drink called *kvas*, which he drinks whenever his *vodka* is not forthcoming. When on the march, and the roads permit the passage of wagons, his meat ration is prepared in a soup-cart, which accompanies the column. This is a huge caldron, mounted on two wheels. It has a fireplace under it, and a pipe to carry the smoke above the eyes of the horses following. On leaving camp, pieces of meat, flour, water, vegetables, or greens that may have been picked up,—in fact, anything edible,—is pitched in and a slow fire started. On arriving at camp, a hot soup is ready to be ladled out to the men. For the Cossacks, camp life is neither a novelty nor a privation. In fact, life in their poverty-stricken villages is harder than life in the field.



A TYPICAL COSSACK OF THE URALS.

Smith & Wesson revolvers. The Cossack wears no spurs, but carries a heavy whip instead. He has no "bright" parts in his equipment, his scabbard is of wood covered with leather, his rifle is carried in an oilcloth case, and his horse's bit is generally rusty. The men in the front rank are also armed with vicious-looking lances 9 feet long, without pennons. Their saddlery is plain and serviceable. The bridle is simple,—a light bridoon, or snaffle-bit, on a plain headstall. It is entirely sewed together, no buckles being used. On the horse's back are placed four felt pads, and over them a leather cover with shoe-pockets in it. The saddle is low, with two girths. Over it is placed a high, padded leather cushion. Everything is strapped together with a surcingle. There are wallets on the pommel, and a leather valise on the cantle. On top of the valise is strapped a blanket-roll, the near end of which is thrust into the mess tin. When packed for the field, the soldier can carry three days' rations on his horse.

The Cossack sits perched high up on the saddle cushion, and may be said to "ride his saddle instead of his horse." His mount is a small, scrubby, ewe-necked animal, with no pretension to beauty, but with a toughness and endurance

HOW THE ARMY IS MOBILIZED.

Of these imperturbable, fearless, hardy, natural soldiers, Russia has, by her system of universal service, made a most remarkable fighting force. The total male population of the Cossack tribes is about 1,250,000. These tribes, in time of peace, supply 47 regiments of cavalry (291 *sotnias*) and 18 horse batteries,—requiring about 52,000 men. Two of these regiments belong to the personal bodyguard of the Czar. All Cossack troops are under the command of the Czarevitch, but have a military administration of their own, and are officered entirely by Cossacks. These forty-seven regiments form the first line. The second line is composed of men belonging to the second period of the Field Class, who, with their horses and full equipments, are home on furlough,—trained soldiers waiting to be called into service. The third line is composed of men in the third period of the Field Class, who have their equipment ready, and, when called out, would have to supply themselves with horses. The regiments are made up of 4 or 6 *sotnias*, each *sotnia* consisting of 148 men and 6 officers in peace, and 153 men and 3 officers in time of war. The three supernumerary officers of the

peace strength of the *sotnia* are, in time of war, assigned to regiments of the second line. With the two supernumerary field officers who are with the peace regiment, these supply an almost complete commissioned personnel. The regiments of the third line and Reserve are officered from the Cossack officers on the reserve list who have completed their field service.

In case of hostilities, the first call for troops brings out the second line,—50,000 additional troops, fully equipped and armed. A second call sends the third line into the field. The 47 regiments of cavalry and 18 horse batteries are, within the time necessary for the distribution of the orders, increased to 155 regiments of cavalry and 38 horse batteries ready for immediate service. A further call brings out the Reserve, making a total of about 275,000 trained Cossacks in the field, and leaving the *Opoltcheni* as a home guard to police the frontier. The only delay in the mobilization is that caused by the great distances over which the troops must be transported, and by the inadequate means of transportation.

THE COSSACK MODE OF FIGHTING.

Cossack tactics are modeled after those of the regular cavalry. The *sotnia* is formed in two

rank, sixty-four files to the front. It is divided into four sections. The *sotnia* is maneuvered by sections, and on the road travels by threes or sixes. The Cossacks still retain, from the days of their tribal wars, a formation called the "Lava." In forming the Lava, whether the force is a regiment, or only a *sotnia*, one-half is deployed in a single line. Behind the center is a small group of experienced men and sergeants, and three hundred yards behind this group follows the remainder of the force. Should a small body of the enemy be met, the first line closes boot to boot, and charges to brush away the enemy by the impetuosity of the attack. Should their opponents prove only a line of skirmishers, or troops in retreat, the line opens out to three or four yards' interval, and charges. If the attack is unsuccessful, the first line rallies on the supporting group, and the third line charges in its solid two-rank formation while the first is reforming. The first then follows the attacking line, and supports it in any way needful.

The Cossacks are not intended for shock action against heavy cavalry. If a formed body of cavalry presents itself, the Cossack harries it with his light first line, and tempts it to charge. Should the enemy charge in close formation, the Cossacks break ranks and swarm about his flanks, watching for a chance to rally quickly and attack in force. In all of their maneuvers they depend upon their quickness in dispersing without "getting out of hand," and their extreme rapidity in rallying and delivering a sudden attack. When the intervals are extended, this Lava forms a cavalry screen for the advance guard, and, pushing one or two days' march ahead of the army, combs the country as with a fine-tooth comb.

The Cossack never fires from horseback except when scouting in the advance guard or covering the retreat of his own army. When delaying an enemy's retreat, when cornered so that he cannot get away, or when needed to hold a portion of the line of battle until the slower infantry comes up, he dismounts to fight on foot. Dismounted, his rifle and bayonet make him a formidable antagonist. By his officers, he is said to shoot well. That remains to be demonstrated in the coming campaign in Manchuria.

REMARKABLE MOBILITY OF COSSACK TROOPS.

The Cossacks are trained especially in endurance and rapidity. Unexpected mobilization and practice raids and reconnaissances are constantly made, both in summer and winter. As an instance, a Cossack regiment, stationed at Zamost, received orders, on January 10, 1884,

From *L'Illustration*, Paris.

THE HEADQUARTERS OF A COSSACK SOTNIA (120 MEN) IN MANCHURIA, SHOWING SENTINELS, COURIER ARRIVING, AND THE STANDARDS OF THE REGIMENT.

to march to Warsaw, a distance of two hundred and twenty miles, and to reach their destination by the morning of the fourteenth. A force of regular cavalry twice their strength was sent out from Warsaw to intercept them. Despite the muddiness of a recent thaw, and the breaking up of the ice on a river over which they were compelled to ferry their horses, fourteen at a time, they surprised and outwitted the force sent against them, and entered Warsaw seventy-two hours after starting.

At Peking, in 1900, it was impossible to go outside the city walls without meeting columns of Russian troops constantly on the march,—where, they alone knew. One day, the Russian commander entered the council of the powers and proposed to withdraw the allies from Peking,—all but a nominal garrison. It was known that Russia had over twenty thousand troops in the city. The Russian was asked how soon he could make the reduction. "By day after tomorrow," he replied. Two days later, he entered the council and announced that there were but five hundred Russian troops in Peking. How this enormous force had been moved, and where it had gone, remained a mystery.

THE STRENGTH AND THE WEAKNESS OF THE
COSSACK TROOPER.

That the Cossacks are formidable antagonists cannot be denied. There is, in fact, but one thing that can be said against them. They are ignorant, 90 per cent. being unable to read or write. The Cossack has but two ideas,—that of the force and power of his horse and arms, and that of blind, implicit subordination. He does not think. He has no initiative. He is not resourceful. His scouting is merely a matter of blundering along, in sufficiently large numbers to stumble on what he is seeking. A dozen intelligent scouts could cover as much ground as a regiment of Cossacks. But he can fight. It was the Cossack who ended the brilliant career of Charles XII. of Sweden. It was the Cossack, as much as the terrible winter of 1812, who rolled back Napoleon from Moscow. It was the Cossack who retrieved the honor of the Russian arms in the Turkish war of 1877. The eyes of the military profession are turned toward Manchuria, where he is now to be pitted against the soldier of Japan, the parvenu among military powers. The latter is deficient in cavalry, but has a light infantry admirably organized, capable of marches of almost incredible length and

swiftness, intelligent, crafty, and animated by a patriotism that is almost a religion.

During the recent Boxer outbreak in China, an American officer found it necessary to go from Taku to Tien-tsin at a time when the road was considered dangerous on account of reported bands of Chinese horsemen. The Cossacks who were patrolling the road were ordered to make the trip in squads of at least fifteen. The officer was alone, with an interpreter, and could get no escort. He set out, however, and soon came to a fork in the road, both ways showing fresh marks of travel. He was at a loss which road to take. A short distance ahead he noticed a Japanese outpost, and rode up to inquire the way. The officer in command informed him that the road had so many forks and crossroads that it would be impossible to give him a clear description. He offered to send along one of his men as a guide. The American thanked him, and said he would send the guide back by the first escort. "Oh, never mind," replied the Japanese; "I will give him orders to return to-night." "But the Boxers!" exclaimed the American; "the Cossacks do not consider the road safe for less than fifteen." The officer shrugged his shoulders and replied, with a smile, "One Japanese; fifteen Cossacks."

From the *Illustrirte Zeitung*, Berlin.

COSSACKS GUARDING THE TRANS-SIBERIAN RAILROAD,—AN OUTPOST ON A MANCHURIAN PLAIN IN WINTER.

A 5,000-KILOWATT PARSONS STEAM TURBINE ENGINE AND GENERATOR.

THE TURBINE: A NEW ERA OF STEAM. CHANGES IT IS MAKING IN THE ENGINEERING WORLD.

BY ARTHUR WARREN.

IT is probable that the last great reciprocating engine-driven power plant has been ordered. Hereafter, the steam turbine will be the prime mover of the new installations.

The layman is apt to think that the turbine may possibly become the steam engine of the future. As a matter of fact, the turbine is emphatically the engine of the present time. "It is not so young as it looks," said a demonstrator, addressing a meeting of railroad men a little while ago. Its principles are as old as the hills, but modern methods of manufacture have only now made its mechanical construction and its commercial application thoroughly practicable.

Most new things in mechanics come when we are ready for them. If the steam turbine had been perfected one hundred years ago, or fifty years ago, or twenty-five years ago, we would not have been ready for it. If we had had the means to build it, we would not have had the means to apply it in general use. Electricity has given the means for its widest application—the commercial development of electric generating devices. The electrical necessities of the hour have forced ahead the development of the steam turbine. High-powered electrical generators had become so huge that they had almost reached the limits of practical construction and the limits of practical space. And the demand is for higher powers still. Speed and power here are closely related. The big generators

were driven as fast as the monster reciprocating engines could drive them. When this point had been reached, the gradually developed turbine was ready. With a turbine revolving at seven hundred and fifty revolutions per minute, it is possible to obtain from a small electrical generator an amount of electrical energy heretofore given only by a machine many times its size.

THE TURBINE'S MARVELOUS ADVANCE.

Behind all other forms of steam-engine practice lies the experience of a hundred years. Behind the steam turbine is the practical experience of twenty years. It is in its commercial importance that the steam turbine is new, and this importance dates from yesterday; that is to say, within half-a-dozen years.

Laymen are averse to technicalities, and this is an article for lay readers. But there are some figures that must be given, and we will begin with these: Energy to the extent of 800,000 horse-power is now daily produced by steam turbines in actual operation in various parts of the world, and turbines aggregating half as much more in horse-power are already contracted for. In the United States alone, one engineering company has turbines to the extent of 250,000 horse-power under order, and another has almost as much, with 50,000 horse-power in daily operation. Each of these concerns builds a different type, and one com-

der like conditions would attain a theoretical velocity of 3,880 feet a second, and would exert 59,900 foot-pounds of energy. But such steam velocity would require in a turbine an ideal peripheral speed of 2,000 feet a second in order to utilize the power. This would mean 38,100 turns a minute for a wheel one foot in diameter. But this speed is far too great for actual practice. The velocity of the steam must be reduced as it passes through the turbine. This reduction of velocity also deprives the steam of all power of erosion. Thus, the parts are not scored or worn.

Steam enters the turbine through nozzles or stationary guide blades fixed to the inner surface of the cylinder, or stator. This steam is directed upon the spindle, or rotor. The impact upon the spindle blades, combined with the reaction due to the difference in pressure on either side of the ring blades, causes the spindle to revolve. Throughout the turbine these actions are repeated, the pressure of the steam increasing and decreasing as it passes through the alternating rings of blades, gradually lowering to that of the vacuum. This operation may be continuous, as in the Parsons turbine, or divided into stages, as in the Curtis. The low steam velocity not only protects the blades from wear, but the steam thrust on each blade of a Parsons turbine is equal to only about one ounce avoirdupois.

THE DE LAVAL TURBINE WHEEL AND NOZZLES.

pany, in Milwaukee, builds units as large as 10,000 horse-power. The largest steam turbines yet placed under operation are of about 6,500 horse-power each. But we are only at the beginning. The greatest engine-builders are engaging in turbine construction. The signs are everywhere that the day of the reciprocating engine is passing.

HOW THE POWER IS PRODUCED AND DELIVERED.

What, then, asks the layman, is this new contrivance? Stripped of verbiage, it is a spindle, or rotor, fitted with graduated rings of projecting blades, which, under the impact of steam, cause the spindle to revolve within a close-fitting cylinder, or stator.

Between this seemingly simple proposition and the actual performance of work of high efficiency lies any amount of ingenious theory and engineering skill and long experiment. Any one can force steam into a cylinder and make a paddle wheel revolve, but to make the wheel deliver constant power under varying conditions and at a minimum of cost is a problem upon which many great brains in the engineering world were engaged before it was solved.

Let us borrow from the engineers, for a moment, a few phrases which will give a clear idea of what is done.

A cubic foot of water under 100 pounds initial pressure, and discharging into a 28-inch vacuum, would attain a theoretical velocity of 130.2 feet a second, and would exert 16,900 foot pounds of energy. A cubic foot of steam un-

THE PARSONS TURBINE.

The Hon. Charles A. Parsons, a son of Lord Rosse of telescope fame, introduced the first practicable steam turbine in 1884. It had a 10-horse-power capacity, and was not an economical machine, but it gave a successful demonstration of the principle. At a pressure of 92 pounds of steam, non-condensing, it ran at 18,000 revolutions a minute, and used 35 pounds of steam per horse-power per hour.

Four years later, Mr. Parsons exhibited an improved turbine of 50 horse-power, making 7,000

turns a minute. Soon afterward he had a 200-horse-power turbine giving 4,000 turns a minute, and showing in steam consumption results that compared favorably with good piston engines. Now turbines of the Parsons type work at from 500 to 3,600 revolutions a minute, and they equal the best piston engines in steam economy. But the attention of the world was not much drawn to the new departure until Mr. Parsons built his little steamer *Turbinia*, and ran it at 34½ knots an hour. Then the world wondered. That was in 1897.

The Parsons type of turbine is the best known at present, because it has been long enough before the engineering world to have secured a wide introduction in many countries. It is a horizontal turbine; that is to say, the spindle, or rotor, is placed in a position horizontal to its bearings, like the propeller shaft of a steamship. In the United States, a turbine of the Parsons type has been built by the Westinghouse Machine Company, of Pittsburg, who have made some improvements in its construction.

SUCCESSFUL RIVAL TURBINES.

A rival of the Parsons turbine is the Curtis, the inventor being Mr. C. G. Curtis, of New York. The Curtis steam turbine is built by the General Electric Company, of Schenectady, N. Y. It is a vertical turbine. A third type is the De Laval, which is made by the De Laval Steam Turbine Company, of New York, and by associated companies in Europe. This is a horizontal turbine, but is very different in construction from the Parsons or the Curtis. It is not built in large units like either of the others, and is seldom constructed in sizes above 300 horse-power. It is a very successful device, many hundreds of the De Laval type being used in the United States, as well as in European countries. The De Laval people have applied the principle of their turbines to cream separators, of which they have half a million at work in the United States.

These three are the turbines best known at this moment in this country. In Europe; the Riedler-Stumpf, the Rateau, and the Zoelly turbines have attracted considerable attention. All of these are horizontal, like the Parsons type. There are other types coming forward, and one of the greatest engineering companies in America, the Allis-Chalmers Company, long famous as builders of reciprocating engines, is bringing its skill and experience to the construction of steam turbines, as well as to electrical machinery. The steam turbines which they are building are on lines very similar to the Parsons type, but embodying notable improvements which are the outcome of experience gained in the operation of turbines of various types.

This, however, is not the place to discuss the merits of the respective types of the prime mover which is making so great a change in engine-building, literally, and in more ways than one,

revolutionizing that practice both on land and sea. What the layman asks is: "Why is the steam turbine of such great importance? What are its advantages?"

NOTHING TO WEAR OUT.

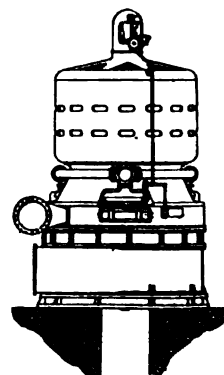
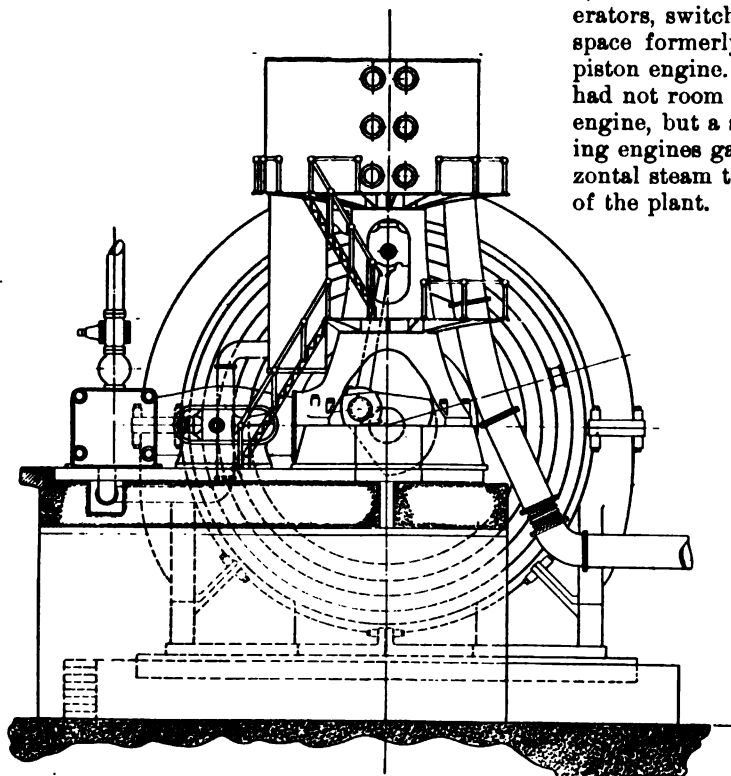
The advantages are many. To begin with, there is the extreme simplicity of construction and operation. Practically, there is nothing to wear out. In piston engines there are many parts that wear. Piston engines decrease in economy with age, but in a turbine there is no such deterioration. The only rubbing parts are the bearings at each end of the spindle. These bearings run in oil, and after years of constant service show literally no wear. Four 100-horse-power turbines have been operating an electric-light plant at Newcastle, England, since 1889, and are still in perfect condition. The oldest turbine-driven plant of the Parsons type in the United States is in Pennsylvania. It consists of four turbines of about 600 horse-power each, driving generators which furnish all the light and power for a large manufactory. These turbines have been in operation four years, and

each week one of them runs from twenty-two to twenty-three hours a day, but they have not cost a cent for repairs.

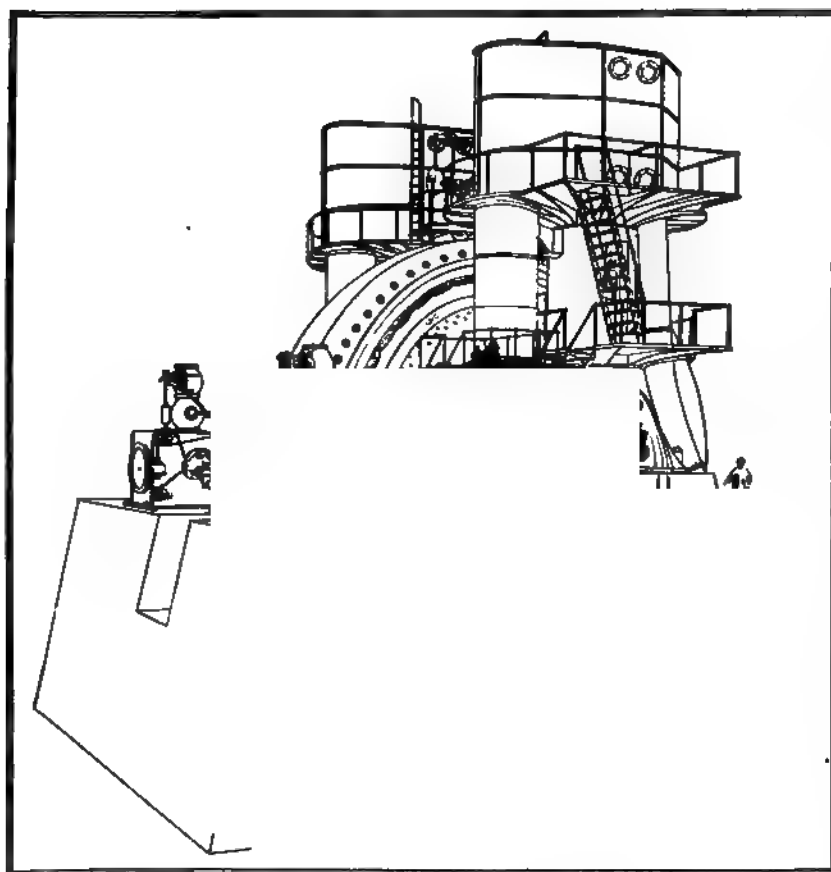
ECONOMY OF SPACE.

Another advantage of any turbine is the saving in space, whether aboard ship or in a power-house. One type of the horizontal turbine occupies not over 40 per cent. of the floor space required by a horizontal engine of the same power, and not over 80 per cent. of the floor space required by a vertical piston engine of the same power. The space occupied by a battleship engine of the usual stroke and piston speed, figuring on a basis of efficiency of 0.85, is approximately 0.75 cubic feet per indicated horse-power. A turbine for a battleship would require only 0.68 cubic feet per indicated horse-power. Every one can understand the importance of saving space aboard ship. But economy of space is no less important on land, especially in large cities, where land is costly and building construction expensive.

A railway company in Ohio was able to find room for three horizontal steam turbines of 1,000-kilowatt capacity each, with electric generators, switchboards, and transformers, in the space formerly occupied by one 1,000-kilowatt piston engine. A manufactory at Akron, Ohio, had not room enough to add another large piston engine, but a slight rearrangement of its existing engines gave space for the addition of horizontal steam turbines which doubled the power of the plant.



A COMPARATIVE ELEVATION OF A 5,000-KILOWATT STEAM ENGINE DIRECT-CONNECTED TO A GENERATOR, AND A 5,000-KILOWATT CURTIS STEAM TURBINE CONNECTED TO A GENERATOR, SHOWING ECONOMY OF SPACE.



COMPARATIVE SIZES OF TURBINE AND RECIPROCATING ENGINES.

(The outline shows one of the newest vertical reciprocating engines, inclosing a Parsons turbine-generator unit of the same capacity.)

The illustration on this page shows in the most effective way a comparison of the floor, foundation, and head spaces occupied by one of the newest vertical reciprocating engines, with a 5,000-kilowatt electric generator attached, and a Parsons-type turbine-generator unit of the same capacity. A demonstration of this sort is worth pages of argument.

Here is a well-authenticated case: a plant was installed containing three vertical cross-compound engines, each driving an electric generator of 1,000-kilowatt capacity. Subsequently, three 1,000-kilowatt units were installed, driven by steam turbines. The turbines saved 900 square feet of engine-room space, and about 38,000 cubic feet. If the entire plant had been equipped with turbo-generators, the saving in space would have been doubled, and the cost of the land, the building, and the foundations would have been reduced by \$50,000. In another case, a saving of \$2,900 was effected on each 1,000-

kilowatt foundation in a power-house by adopting turbo-generators instead of piston-driven.

OTHER ADVANTAGES.

There is another point which affects the cost of installation, and that is the saving in time, which, of course, is money. The great vertical piston engines are laboriously built up ("erected") in their power-houses, and the multiplicity of parts requires nice adjustment on the site. Steam turbines are sent out from their makers with all the main parts in place and permanently adjusted.

Steam turbines of 600 horse-power have been placed in service in from one to three days after being received. Others have supplied their full load of electric current for commercial purposes within a week, even within five days, from the time they were taken off the freight cars.

There is absolutely no internal lubrication in the turbine. Therefore, the exhaust steam can be condensed into oil-free water, and fed hot directly to the boilers. Superheated steam is used without any injury to the turbine. Superheat of any feasible temperature can be used without reserve. This is not the case with piston engines. Superheat, combined with a high vacuum, gives exceptional economy in the use of the turbine, especially in units of large power.

If water enters the turbine, even in excessive quantities, through the "priming," or foaming, of the boiler, no harm is done. The speed of the rotor may be checked, but that is all. Piston engines have been wrecked by the admission of superfluous water into their cylinders. Wet steam does no injury to the turbine; it merely reduces its capacity. It is axiomatic that piston engines show good economy only when carrying their full load. But the turbine shows the same economy, within a very few per cent.,

when running at anywhere from one-quarter of its load to its full capacity. It even carries heavy and continuous overloads without difficulty.

In the matter of foundations, the turbine has another advantage. Foundations for piston engines are expensive; for engines of large power they are very expensive. The turbine needs only a foundation strong enough to bear its weight and keep it in alignment. There are no "thrusters" or vibrations to be absorbed. The piston engine must be bolted down to its foundation. Except on shipboard, the turbine need not be bolted down. It will work in a gallery, or on a wooden floor strong enough to hold it.

Absence of vibration is one of the conspicuous advantages of the steam turbine. One of the favorite diversions of engineers operating turbine-driven power stations is to puzzle visitors by asking them to identify, by touching the stators, those turbines which are in motion and those which are at rest. The average man finds the turbine in motion as free from vibration as the turbine at rest. At all events, this is true of horizontal turbines.

Unlike piston engines, the turbines work equally well under constant load, or with great and sudden variations of load. This makes them especially valuable in electric-lighting and power plants. They do not need watching; they take care of themselves.

USE ON OCEAN STEAMSHIPS.

The applications of the turbines seem to be limitless in possibility. Their special field of

service is in motive power for steam vessels, and for driving electric generators whether afloat or ashore. But when that is said practically all is said, for we do nearly everything nowadays by electricity, except the driving of vessels. Even the steam railroads are adopting the newer force. A generation hence the steam locomotive may be as much of a rarity as the horse-car now is,—in any large city except New York.

It has been said that the steam turbine is the engine of to-day. Already it is world-wide in its application. It is working at the De Beers mines in Africa to the extent of 2,000 kilowatts. It is driving passenger vessels on the Clyde and the English Channel. The Allan Line is building a large turbine steamer for the mail service between Great Britain and Canada. The two new 25-knot Cunarders are to be turbine driven. There will be 60,000 horse-power in each ship. The highest-powered steamship ever built heretofore is the *Kaiser Wilhelm II.*, of the North German Lloyd. This vessel has reciprocating engines of 40,000 horse-power. The significance of the Cunard departure must be apparent to every one. And the comfort of ocean travelers will be vastly increased by the absence of the vibrations caused by piston engines. The newest ocean-going steam yachts are turbine-driven. Turbine torpedo-boats are no longer novelties. The great naval powers are still experimenting, but merchant shipowners have gone far beyond experiment, and manufacturers in all countries are installing turbines as fast as they can get them.

WITH ELECTRIC GENERATORS.

In London, the Underground Electric Railway Company has ordered 60,000 horse-power in eight turbines; the Metropolitan Railway, 14,000 horse-power. The city of Liverpool has ordered 4,000 horse-power in turbines; and Brighton, 7,500 horse-power. One company, near Glasgow, is putting down turbines to the extent of 16,000 horse-power; another, in Yorkshire, 6,000; and the town council of Harrogate, 1,000, for lighting their attractive town. Turbines to the extent of 4,000 horse-power are ordered for supplying the electric current to tram lines near London. Nearly all of these turbines are horizontal, of Parsons or modified Parsons type. In Chicago, the Commonwealth Electric Company has been using a big Curtis turbine since October 2, 1903. This turbine is rated at 5,000-kilowatt capacity,—about 6,700 horse-power,—making 500 revolutions per minute, at a usual pressure of 185 pounds. Two other turbines of the same make and capacity have also been installed, and the station is so planned that it can eventually contain fourteen turbine units, vertical or horizontal, of whatever type may be chosen. Paper mills, textile mills, and machine shops in the United States are being successfully operated by steam turbines, and electric railways are ordering them for their power-houses. The New York subway will be lighted by electricity generated by horizontal turbine-driven dynamos.

RECORDS OF PERFORMANCE.

There are many records of turbine performance which those who run may read. Before me is the record of a turbine in Silesia, which ran without stopping (except for a few hours every three or four weeks, when the boilers were cleaned) from October 4, 1901, to January 17, 1903. The only repair needed was in a valve which had been cut by acid-bearing feed-water. The lubricating oil was changed only once in twelve months, and only eighty-five gallons were used in a year. A 5,000-horse-power turbine, at Frankfort-on-the-Main, ran a year without any necessity for repair. At the Municipal Electric Supply Station, at Elberfeld, a 1,000-kilowatt turbine, under full load with normal conditions, gave the following results: superheat 26°; steam pressure, 141 pounds; steam used for electrical horse-power, 14.4 pounds. This is equivalent to about 12.3 pounds per indicated horse-power. Turbine performance is measured by brake horse-power, or electrical horse-power, not by indicated horse-power. It is claimed that this is fairer to the purchaser, because engine friction and other variable conditions often vitiate

the value of tests that are calculated in piston-engine ratings. Brake horse-power is the power actually delivered.

An American-built turbine, driving a manufacturing plant operated by electric motors, has carried 33 per cent. overload regularly without any perceptible harm. Before the American Society of Mechanical Engineers, last August, an account was given of a turbo-generator in Connecticut. Measuring the power as delivered at the pulleys of the motors, it was found that piston engines in the same shops required three times as much coal as the turbine to give the same power.

AN OLD DEVICE WITH A NEW APPLICATION.

New as the layman thinks the turbine, the fact remains that it is a very ancient device. Hero, of Alexandria, described a reaction turbine as far back as the year 120 B.C. It was a spherical vessel mounted on trunnions through which steam was admitted, the exhaust issuing from openings tangential to the sphere. Giovanni Branca, of Italy, invented the impact turbine in 1629. But these were curiosities rather than efficient machines, judged by the requirements of the present day. It was only when the electrical age had got fairly started that the necessity for the turbine made itself apparent. And it was only then that we learned how to handle the material, how to make the tools to fashion it, and how to overcome the difficulties of the enormously high speeds of which this rotary prime mover is capable.

Perhaps no fact in all the record is more significant than this: that the greatest engine-builders in the world, a company whose mighty reciprocating engines are everywhere regarded as among the marvels of the industrial world, have built at

THE HERO TURBINE.

Milwaukee an immense manufactory for the production of the rotary prime movers, which are destined to drive the reciprocating engine into retirement. Nor is this all. For the same company, by the same reason, enters the electrical field. The builder of steam turbines must build electric generators. This is the newest phase of the tendency of the times. For the turbine and the dynamo are henceforth practically inseparable.

THE "OPEN-SHELF" DEPARTMENT, BUFFALO PUBLIC LIBRARY.

THE WORK OF A MODERN PUBLIC LIBRARY.

BY H. L. ELMENDORF.

(Librarian of the Buffalo Public Library.)

THE REVIEW OF REVIEWS, in asking for this outline of the organization and working of the Public Library of the city of Buffalo, as typical of the kind of work which, *mutatis mutandis*, is being done over and over again by cities and towns in this country, chose this library quite as much, probably, because of the size, situation, and character of the city as because of the specific work of the library.

Buffalo is a city of about four hundred thousand inhabitants,—large enough so that the working out of her library experiment has been on a liberal scale, and yet not so large but that it is thoroughly centralized. The city is located neither so far east that untried things were too deeply against established precedents, nor so far west that the tax burdens, made heavy by the demand for those material things that make city life tolerable, such as sewers and pavements and schoolhouses, forbid even a small increase. Buffalo's population is mixed, of every name and nation under heaven, so that her problems are as varied, though not as vast, as those confronting cities of larger growth.

The late founding of the library, as a public library, has perhaps been in its favor as a type.

Sister cities, on all sides, had their public libraries years ago. Boston, Detroit, Cleveland, Cincinnati, Chicago, and Milwaukee created their public libraries in the order named, and have been making their successes and their mistakes, one after another, ever since 1850.

The American Library Association was founded in 1876, and has met annually since, winning a body of library doctrine out of the experience of its members. Buffalo, not organizing her public library until 1897, would have been foolish, indeed, had she not taken advantage of this body of doctrine and gone to each of these libraries for something of suggestion, if not for imitation.

Buffalo was not, however, so dead in library matters as so late a public-library movement might seem to indicate. In 1837, one of the earliest of the Young Men's Association libraries was founded here. It was managed with great intelligence and business foresight, and by means of fortunate real-estate investments, and by becoming, still more fortunately, a pet hobby of rich men while living, and their favorite legatee when dying, it accumulated a very considerable property. To show its hold on the community,

it would be interesting to tell the story of the time when a very desirable location, much wished for by the library, was likely to pass irrecoverably into private ownership. A popular subscription was opened, and more than one hundred thousand dollars was raised from more than five thousand subscribers.

Through various vicissitudes, one of which was the disastrous Hotel Richmond fire in 1887, the "Buffalo Library," as it came to be known in 1886, finally became possessed of its present centrally located property and fine building, and the great Iroquois Hotel, which it still owns. The beautiful building was its home; the rentals of the Iroquois Hotel were its sufficient income.

It seems a far cry from the Trinity Church tenements in New York City to the Buffalo Public Library, but without the one the other, very probably, might not be in existence. The agitation concerning the Trinity tenements led to the passage, in 1896, of the act of the New York Legislature taxing, throughout the State, all property of learned, educational, and religious societies from which they received a revenue. This act at once curtailed the income of the Buffalo Library. It stood possessed of its valuable collection of 86,000 volumes, and its buildings and grounds valued at close to \$1,000,000, and a total remaining income, from all sources, of not more than \$5,600 for administration and for growth.

The situation was evidently quite impossible, and something had to be done. The Buffalo Library had been very public-spirited, the community was proud of the institution, and the city came to the rescue in a way that, while it saved the situation, was, nevertheless, greatly to the city's profit.

After a short period of negotiation, enabling acts were obtained, and the whole of the library's property was turned over in trust to the city, under a contract that safeguarded all interests, on condition that the city maintain a free public library, giving it an annual income of not less than 3-100 of 1 per cent. of the total assessed valuation of the city.

Thus, from the travail of the "Buffalo Library," the Buffalo Public Library was born, in the year 1897, with a great library, a great building, an income of some \$60,000 already in its possession, and the problem before it so to administer all these things as to influence most effectively and most wholesomely the life of the city. The history of the founding of the library is necessary to an understanding of the instant appreciation of the public library by the people of Buffalo.

The dominating idea of the library man-

agement throughout the seven years has been how to bring the books of the library most wisely, most easily, most attractively, into the hands of their owners, the citizens of Buffalo. This idea governed the rules by which those qualified to borrow books were determined, hence they were very liberal. Any grown person, and any child who was old enough to write his name, might have the cards which entitled him to draw books by simply identifying himself as a resident of Buffalo, with a stated home in the city. Even this registration, as it is called, is irksome to the unthinking, but, of course, it is quite impossible to allow public property to be carried away by persons whom it is not easily possible to trace. No such thing as a guarantee, or identification by a property-owner is required, but simply satisfactory evidence of the person's real name and residence.

At the end of four months from the opening, there were more than 32,000 registered borrowers. The old library had at no time more than about 1,500 members. The increase is strong testimony of how effective a barrier even a small fee is to multitudes of would-be readers. The registered borrowers now number 56,500, besides 30,000 children, whose attendance at the public schools is made to serve as sufficient identification.

The next thing to be considered was how freely the people could wisely and safely be permitted to handle the stock of books in making their choice to take home. The precedents in public libraries the country over were by no means uniform,—e.g., Boston closed its circulating books and required that they be asked for by list at a desk, and threw its beautiful reference library open; Cleveland opened its entire

circulating shelves and restricted its reference shelves; Philadelphia threw all shelves open, and Chicago closed every shelf.

The policy of an institution, like the conduct of an individual, is usually a resultant of the clash between ideals and fixed conditions, and the policy in this case was so determined.

The Buffalo Public Library was born with a large collection of books and a building; these were its fixed conditions. These books had been gathered during a period of sixty years. Some of them were too valueless, by reason of age and consequent lack of interest, to be put in the way of unskilled readers; and, on the other hand, some of them were of value to the few, the students merely, and of so great value that it would be the height of extravagance to allow them to be worn out by the aimless handling of the many, to whom they are without interest. The building was arranged to store the books in what is called a "stack,"—that is, in this case at least, a long, rather narrow room, with two stories of bookcases throughout, separated by aisles less than three feet wide, the whole rather poorly lighted. It was evidently quite impossible to admit people in any numbers into such a room and expect them to find what they wished and keep even reasonably out of one another's way. It seemed a foregone conclusion that the public could not have free access to the mass of the books, and a compromise was in order.

AN OPEN-SHELF DEPARTMENT.

In the course of some alterations in the building, to make it more fit to accommodate large numbers of people, by the removal of partitions and the cutting of new openings, an attractive, well-lighted, easily accessible room, 75 by 38 feet in dimensions, was provided. This room was shelved with oak bookcases seven shelves high, around the walls only, leaving the center of the room free for tables and hospitable chairs. Shelving was thus at hand where about eight thousand books could be comfortably displayed to a large number of people. Upon these shelves was placed a selected library representing all classes of literature, with the exception of books for reference only, not omitting a generous supply of the best novels.

The plan was to throw open the best popular books of every description,—not books for scholarly research, or even for careful study, but the best of everything to attract and interest that large class called "general readers." Besides the permanent collection, a section is reserved in this room where new books are shelved for three months after they are added to the library. Every one is welcome to this room

to read and to examine the books as he will, and such as have library cards may borrow the books in the usual way. These books serve best those who come to the library not knowing precisely what they want, but needing to be reminded of something that they have long desired to see but have momentarily forgotten, or to be pleased with something that attracts them by its appearance. Those who prefer to ask directly for what they want can be best served in the outer room, where assistants hand them books over the counter from the stack. The books in the open shelves, except the comparatively small number of new books, are all duplicated in the stack, and do not interfere with presenting lists in the time-honored way.

The purpose of the open shelves is to recommend the best books by placing each book where it can recommend itself by being seen and handled. Large numbers of duplicates are provided, so that favorites may always be represented on the shelves. Twenty thousand volumes are necessary to keep the eight thousand places on the shelves reasonably well filled. The list is constantly revised, and no book that proves unattractive is allowed to cumber the shelves, but is retired to the stack, to give place to something more desirable. No book is shelved here that has not something attractive in itself, which will make the book more likely to be read because it can be seen and examined.

ATTRACTING READERS TO THE BEST BOOKS.

Experience shows that no book which is well made,—that is, well printed and bound, and has a real, vital message for mankind,—fails to find appreciation. Many of the best and greatest books are borrowed from the open shelves four or five times as often, during the year, as copies of the same book are lent from the stack. To show that the collection is really liked, it is only necessary to say that during 1903, these 20,000 volumes gave a circulation of 245,000,—that is, each book of the entire number was taken home and, presumably, read twelve times during the year. This is, of course, an average; some did not go twelve times, but others went oftener. The ordinary library methods are used to attract attention to the books, such as special lists and special displays of books on current topics of interest, critical notices posted near the new books, book-posters, and bulletin displays.

The open-shelf collection,—a library for the general reader, carefully selected, tested by experience, and constantly revised,—cannot, and does not, strive to keep pace with the skilled novel-reader. It does attempt to put most of the old, great books, the authorities on special

subjects, the pleasant, lovable authors, and the best new books, be they delightful, useful, or instructive, before its readers, and the steady and, in many cases, growing use of these books is a constant source of encouragement and delight.

The question is always asked, and may as well be answered, "Do you not lose books under this system?" We certainly do, but very few,—less than 1 to 5,000 of circulation. The board of directors and library authorities have long ago lost the fetish idea in regard to books. This collection represents current books, easily replaceable and worth just the money it will cost to replace them. The money loss is many times made up by the saving in attendants' salaries, as it costs about one-third as much to circulate books in this way as under the old system. Neither the loss nor the saving is to be taken into account as compared with the pleasure and profit of the many who enjoy these privileges, and who, collectively, pay the pittance of loss.

The open-shelf department may be considered the most distinctive feature of the library's work, so much so that among librarians it is often referred to as the "Buffalo plan."

FREE USE OF REFERENCE BOOKS AND PERIODICALS.

The reference department adjoins the open-shelf room. Here the ordinary encyclopædias, dictionaries, atlases, gazetteers, and the like are convenient to the visitor's hands, and skilled attendants are ready to place the entire resources of the library, from all departments, at the inquirer's service. Many books are bought with reference to the wants of the manufacturing interests of the city. These are occasionally used, and their information is very valuable at times, though not so often as might be expected by students in other lines. In mechanical engineering and manufacturing processes, practice is far in advance of the record of it. The most practical men, the men that bring things to pass, seldom either write or lecture, and books in these lines are often out of date before they are off the press. The consultation of formulas and tables, however, often saves the mechanic and the manufacturer much time.

It is by students of literature, by high-school pupils, and by members of literary clubs and societies that the room is most used.

The idea of accessibility, which pervades the library, is carried out in the periodical room by placing three hundred of the most popular current weekly and monthly magazines in an open rack, or case, in the center of the room. These are arranged alphabetically by titles, that they may be easily found, and are free to all, for use in the room, without receipt or record of any kind.

A CORNER OF THE CHILDREN'S DEPARTMENT.

The same freedom prevails in the newspaper room, where the local dailies and weeklies and representative papers of other cities are placed on wall racks or reading tables, and invite the reader to their use without inquiry or formal receipt.

The children's department is administered on the same lines as the open-shelf room. The children have their own reference and reading room, and their library is a selection of the best children's books on open shelves. They have their picture bulletins, their special book lists, and special collections of books on topics in connection with their school studies and their Saturday-morning story hour. The children's work needs for its description an article by itself, although it differs little from that of other modern public libraries, save possibly in the size of its rooms and the volume of its circulation.

BRANCH LIBRARIES.

In order to reach people who live too far off to come to the main building, the library has nine delivery stations and three branch libraries. At the stations, a daily delivery is made of books asked for by written lists. These stations are usually located in drug stores or news-stands, the proprietors being responsible merely for receiving the requests and delivering the books.

Each of the three branches is a small library in itself, and has from two thousand to three thousand books. Each branch is in communication with the main library by telephone, and has a daily delivery of books from the central building to supply such calls as cannot be filled from the branch collection. The open-shelf system applies to all. The branch work has an effectiveness similar to that of the well-managed

library in a small town. The librarian is thoroughly acquainted with his small collection of books, and knows individually the readers who frequent the library, and their needs and wishes have the personal attention which they deserve.

PUBLIC-SCHOOL LIBRARIES.

The chief function of the public library is the education of good citizens, and its greatest opportunity is with young people. While the library affords information and recreation for those of mature years, it can help to form the characters of the children. Realizing this, it was thought all important to take advantage of the gathering of sixty thousand of the young citizens some two hundred days in the year, at an expense fifteen times greater than the cost of the public library, for the express purpose of suggesting to them the various ways by which they may develop into happy, wise, and useful citizens. Nowhere else does the city gather her citizens in any such numbers or so accessibly. If there is a means by which the two institutions, the school and the library, which are supported by the city for one and the same purpose, can unite their endeavors, the one strengthening, deepening, and enlarging the work of the other, is it not manifestly a culpable waste of both appropriations if they do not join forces?

When the library was made free every public school had something of a school library, bought with the State and city appropriations for the purpose, supplemented in many schools by gifts, the proceeds of entertainments, etc. Some of these libraries were good, but all of them were inadequate, and all of them failed in the vital matter that their use brought no association with the public library. They were school property, and there was no suggestion in them that when school-days were over there were in the public library more and better books, always free to them as one of their rights and privileges as children and citizens of Buffalo.

The school authorities of the city and the board of directors of the library have been equally alive to the value of the coöperation, have authorized each step, accepting and encouraging with good will and intelligence every advance in the system.

After careful consideration, the following plan was submitted to principals and teachers: the schools were to turn over to the public library all their miscellaneous books, retaining only purely reference books. These miscellaneous books were to be sorted, the poor ones withdrawn and the good ones, supplemented by others from the public library, were to be returned in the form of a library for each class-room, about equal in number of volumes to the number of pupils. Twenty-four school principals made application to have

THE NEWSPAPER DEPARTMENT.

the libraries in their schools, and ten schools were chosen for the experiment. In making the selection, the distance of the school from the library, the character of the district in which it was located, and the possession, by both principal and teachers, of such an intelligent sympathy with the idea as would give the experiment a fair test, were all taken into consideration.

The books turned over to the library showed a plain need that selection and purchase should be in the hands of a single-headed institution like the public library, which could be held responsible, rather than a composite body of principals and teachers. Only about 20 per cent. of the books in the old school libraries were thought fit to return, and the public library added, from its own resources, more than five thousand volumes to begin the experiment. The selection was made with the greatest care, each book being thoroughly examined, and most of them critically read. Each school and each class was studied, with the aid of the teacher, before intelligent assignment of the books could be secured, and even then many errors were made,

some of which experience and observation have helped to correct.

The very simplest method of charging was devised, to be kept by the teacher. Each teacher was allowed to make her own rules for using the books. They might be used in the school-room, for reading to the children, drawn for home use, or in any way thought best, the only restriction being that they must never be used as rewards or punishments.

Library assistants visit each school twice each month,—once to take necessary statistics from the records, and once in a friendly way to talk with the teachers, to find whether the books are suitable, to take account of any special wants.

and to aid the work in every possible way. Reasonable care of the books is required, but only such as is given to other school property, and in case of loss or damage there is no money liability for the teacher. The libraries are changed once during the school year by shifting from room to room or from school to school.

Schools have been added to the ten with which

THE WILLIAM IVES BRANCH OF THE BUFFALO PUBLIC LIBRARY.

the start was made, until now thirty-nine schools, with six hundred and ninety-three class-room libraries, are included in the system. The school department began in very modest,—in fact, very cramped,—quarters in one of the library workrooms. The work grew so that it demanded more room, and the department now occupies five of the most desirable rooms in the library. The pleasantest of all is a teachers' headquarters, where a sample of every school library book is kept, and where pictures are displayed. School reference books are here for inspection, and a small pedagogical library. Teachers can freely use this room for their committee meetings or in any way to help their work and make them at home in the library.

The difficult but natural and practical question is, "What is the result of all this?" The statistics of use of the books is the most tangible record. The first year, with ten schools, showed a home circulation of 27,469, with 6,400 volumes in use. In 1903, with 39 schools and 30,600 vol-

umes, the home circulation was 309,874. These figures speak for themselves, and it should be remembered that the books are not an ordinary general collection of children's books, but have been selected with great care, so that the circulation might justly be called "approved."

The success of the libraries is not uniform, but varies with the ability of the teacher to make use of the facilities offered. The library's idea is to furnish the teachers means, or at least an aid, to develop each individual child along the line of that child's strongest inclination and greatest ability.

TRAVELING LIBRARIES FOR FIREMEN AND OTHERS.

The stations of the city fire department are supplied with small libraries on the traveling-library plan,—that is, a case with from twenty-five to fifty books is sent to each fire-house, and is changed about six times a year. The work of the firemen involves so much enforced leisure, while they are waiting and must be ready for a call, that it gives them ample opportunity to read. These libraries are greatly enjoyed and highly appreciated. One fireman exclaimed, "Before the library came, I did not know there were such books in the world." Naturally books "where they do something" are chosen, and several chiefs have reported that numbers of their men read every book in the collection.

Besides the firemen, many others draw books on the traveling-library plan, and one hundred and eight collections were issued last year to literary clubs, teachers in private schools, five

Sunday-schools, twelve charitable institutions, homes, etc. The spirit and practice of the library is to seek and to accept every opportunity to get the books into the hands of the people, and thus allow the books to serve most completely the purpose for which the institution stands.

SPIRIT OF THE LIBRARY ADMINISTRATION.

Not a prohibitory sign defaces the library rooms, and while there are many placards giving information and directions, it has never been found necessary to display a single "Thou shalt not."

The present annual income of the library, from all sources, is about \$85,000, and its annual circulation of books for home use 1,085,000 volumes.

The measure of success which the library has had is largely due to the wise and cordial support of the board of directors. Its policy from the start has been to impose responsibility for initial action and all executive work upon the librarian, and to require results. The librarian, to a certain extent, takes the same course with his heads of departments, so that the library has the cordial interest and endeavor of the personnel of the staff. The board meets once a month, with its treasurer and librarian, carefully examines the work of the month past, patiently listens to the plans for future work, and discusses and approves or not, as is thought most wise. The directors visit the library between meetings, and are the intelligent advisers and trusted friends of the librarian.

A TWO-THOUSAND-POUND GASOLINE WAGON ON THE SERVICE TEST.

THE AUTOMOBILE IN BUSINESS.

BY J. A. KINGMAN.

A TEST of commercial automobiles held this season under the auspices of the Automobile Club of America calls attention to the progress which is being made in this branch of transportation, and induces reflection on the advantages to be obtained from the general adoption of these vehicles for business purposes. This service test, so called, was excellent, in that it required the competing cars to perform for one week the actual duties of express wagons, trucks, and the like in regular delivery service in Greater New York. Thus, it was not a sham test, but an actual one; and it was of much value to both producer and consumer, showing the one where he could alter his product so as to make it conform more nearly to the requirements of the user and demonstrating to the other the advantages of the motor vehicle over the horse-drawn vehicle under actual working conditions. It may be stated briefly that out of seventeen competing cars, ranging in size from the light delivery van to the massive ten-ton truck, fifteen completed the work of the week in a most satisfactory manner. Of the two failures, one was traceable to the neglect of an attendant,—the vehicle being a truck which had won a gold medal in a similar trial held the year before,—and the other to the fact that the competing car was experimental, and had been hastily finished, so that it could take part in the test.

The fact that the manufacturers have been

busy building automobiles to carry a limited number of passengers forms the principal reason why business automobiles have not been produced in larger quantities. There are other causes as well,—the condition of the streets and roads, for instance, is a serious problem. Owners of pleasure automobiles will put up with indifferent roads provided the surfaces of these are not so bad as to prevent the pleasures of motor-ing; whereas business firms hesitate to invest in expensive automobiles unless they can receive substantial proof to the effect that such cars can be operated economically over our present roads and streets.

Another important reason why the production of business automobiles has been delayed is the necessity of time to perfect and standardize automobile mechanism. Work of this kind has progressed rapidly in late years, the changes and improvements following each other so closely that the manufacturers have had to exert themselves to the utmost to keep their product up to date.

The advantages accruing to the user and to the community at large from the adoption of commercial automobiles are numerous. First, there is the matter of economy,—economy of space, time, and money. The business automobile takes up less space in the stable or on the street than the horse and wagon, and this is an advantage which is very important. As an

TES-TON GASOLINE-ELECTRIC TRUCK.

(The motive power is electricity obtained from two sources, —a dynamo driven by a gasoline motor and storage batteries,—a system referred to as "combined" or "mixed." The object of combining the gasoline and electric systems is to reduce the weight of the storage batteries. A car of this type did well in the service test held April last.)

example, it may be stated that a Philadelphia firm was confronted with the problem of building a new stable for horses and trucks. Owing to the size of the stable needed, and to the high price of land, the cost of this was to have been two hundred and forty thousand dollars. Automobiles were investigated, and the fact that they took up so much less room than horses and trucks resulted in the purchase of fifteen five-ton electric vehicles. An officer in a prominent New York department store stated recently that the automobiles used in their delivery work took up less than half the stable room formerly occupied by horses and wagons. A business automobile can cover more ground in a day than a horse and wagon, a statement which has been demonstrated many times and under various conditions. A New York brewer found that an automobile truck could make three trips per day, as against one trip made by a horse-drawn truck. In the recent test, one automobile made one hundred service stops in a single day, a performance which could hardly be equaled by a horse-drawn vehicle.

As to the various motive powers suitable for such vehicles, it may be stated that many designers believe that some one particular power is best suited for automobile delivery work, and will in time displace all others; whereas the probability is that each of the three tried servants, steam, electricity, and gasoline, will enjoy continued development, and each be used where best suited for the purpose.

The electric motor is too good to abandon because of the weight and other limitations of the storage battery as built at present. Such a mo-

tor is simple, reliable, and noiseless, and, what is particularly important, delivers its greatest torque, or turning effect, at its lowest speed, a property very valuable in a delivery car, which requires to be started from a state of rest so often. Ease and simplicity of operation, an important desideratum, is perhaps best exemplified in the electric car. It is capable of being left alone indefinitely, and of being instantly and surely started by the operator on his return; it is cleanly, quiet, and requires no extra attention in cold weather.

Electric automobiles for business purposes have received the greatest development in this country, and they are now used to a considerable extent in the larger cities. It is estimated that there are about three hundred delivery wagons and trucks of this type in New York City, these ranging in size from the department-store wagon, carrying about one ton, to the five-ton truck. One firm alone has supplied one hundred and fifty vehicles of this sort for use in the metropolitan district. The standard type of electric car, carrying two thousand pounds, costs twenty-five hundred dollars, of which three hundred dollars is for a body made in any style to suit the user. A three-ton truck costs about thirty-seven hundred dollars, and a five-ton truck about four thousand dollars. These figures are fairly representative, and refer to vehicles employing the type of storage battery in general use.

It is difficult to compare the cost of operation of any system of automobiles with that of horse-drawn vehicles, because in one case the automobile is relatively new, depreciation is difficult to estimate, and reliable figures are not too plentiful; and in the other case, horse-drawn vehicles may cost very much to run, or very

A FIVE-TON AUTOMOBILE TRUCK.

(In this case, it will be noticed that the cubic capacity is large, a most desirable feature. Much freight is comparatively light in proportion to its bulk,—thus the need for ample storage space.)

little, depending on how they are being used. Some horse delivery systems are very elaborate; others are very simple, economy being the prime requisite. A close observer of automobile development said, recently, that any one automobile can never replace a single horse and wagon, the reason for this statement being that firms using only one automobile would not be in a position to run it in the most economical manner. As time goes on and charging stations become more frequent, and the conditions under which business automobiles are used become somewhat changed, it is doubtful if this statement will hold true.

Any reader of this article who uses horse-drawn vehicles in his business will know the cost of such a system, and can thus compare the same with figures which will be given below as to the cost of operating electric vehicles. It must be remembered in this connection that the automobile can cover more ground than the horse-drawn vehicle, and that, even should a system of automobiles be obviously more expensive than horse-drawn vehicles, other advantages more than counterbalance this amount, whatever it might be in any particular case. The fact that many of the department stores in New York are using, more and more, business automobiles all the time is an indication of the satisfaction which these vehicles are giving, whatever may be the reasons for such satisfaction. One important point to remember in comparing the cost of automobiles with horses is that the life of a truck horse in New York City

is generally estimated at three and one-half years, and that of a street-car horse at about two years.

Let us first take up the matter of the typical department-store wagon, carrying two thousand pounds, and costing twenty-five hundred dollars.

A GASOLINE DELIVERY WAGON.
(Suitable for the rapid transportation of light loads of about five hundred pounds. Motive power obtained from a single-cylinder water-cooled gasoline motor.)

A car of this sort may be considered as a successful motor vehicle, for one prominent department store in New York has used fifteen of these for about six months, and recently placed an order for thirty-five more.

* Battery maintenance.....	\$404.85
Tire maintenance.....	130.00
Cost of battery charging current.....	122.70
General repairs	73.10
Depreciation, at 10 per cent.....	192.70
Interest on investment, at 5 per cent	125.00
Total, ..	\$1,088.35

Assuming such a vehicle to run thirty miles a day, the yearly mileage may be estimated to be eighty-six hundred, approximately. The figures given above are well on the side of conservatism, and are perhaps unnecessarily high.

The cost of lubricating oil is not given, but this is comparatively small. Similar figures for a three-ton truck, costing thirty-seven hundred dollars, will now be given:

Battery maintenance.. ..	\$570.57
Tire maintenance.....	308.00
Cost of battery charging	
current	177.12
General repairs.....	106.98
Depreciation, at 10 per	
cent.....	267.50
Interest, at 5 per cent	185.00
Total	\$1,509.77

Proceeding further, and noting down cost for operating a five-ton truck, first cost of which is four thousand dollars.

* These figures are compiled from a technical paper by H. P. Maxim read before the Automobile Club of America.—J. A. K.

THE OLD AND THE NEW UNDER THE SAME ROOF.

(Interesting as illustrating graphically the economy of space which can be brought about by the use of commercial automobiles.)

Battery maintenance.....	\$356.15
Tire maintenance.....	848.00
Cost of battery charging current.....	186.40
General repairs.....	111.40
Depreciation, at 10 per cent.....	273.50
Interest, at 5 per cent.....	200.00
Total.....	\$1,785.45

In looking over these figures, we find that the cost per ton-mile in the three cases is as follows :

One-ton truck	\$0.1261
Three-ton truck.....	0.1163
Five-ton truck.....	0.0874

Indicating that the larger the vehicle used the greater is the economy which may be obtained. In all three cases, it will be noticed that the cost of the battery maintenance plus the tire maintenance is greater than that of all other charges combined.

A company starting in to use automobiles in its business should estimate somewhat on the lines of the figures given above; it should charge off a liberal allowance yearly for depreciation; it should employ good men only, for economy is impossible with inefficient attendants or careless operators; it should watch carefully every little detail of the working of the system, for, even under favorable conditions, a service of this kind would show no saving unless rightly handled.

The gasoline motor appears to be gaining favor for commercial purposes. An example of this tendency is the fact that of the seventeen automobiles which competed in the test referred to at the beginning of this article, nine were driven by gasoline. In this connection it should be noted that five of these cars were entered by two manufacturers alone, the other four being comparatively new cars, and not manufactured in any quantity. Moreover, one manufacturer of electric cars whose product is well and widely known did not enter any machines in the test. The tendency exists, however, and it is rather curious, for, although the gasoline motor is highly desirable for touring cars, it does not seem as suitable as steam or electric power when the nature of delivery work is considered. The inelasticity—the inflexibility—of the gasoline motor is well known, and this causes complication of the driving mechanism and makes the gasoline car more difficult to operate in a crowded street and less convenient to start from a state of rest. Further than this, the comparatively slow speed of delivery automobiles makes the problem of cooling the motor more difficult than in the case of touring cars. The gasoline motor, however, is highly economical, quickly got ready, and, when well built and properly maintained, is thoroughly practical and reliable;

A BUSINESS AUTOMOBILE OF MODERATE SIZE DESIGNED TO CARRY A LOAD OF TWO THOUSAND POUNDS.

(The machinery and driving apparatus are carried on a frame, a style of construction which permits any body, either simple or elaborate, to be attached. Radius of action, thirty-five miles, at a normal speed of ten miles per hour. Electric motive power.)

moreover, the improvement of this form of motor in the past few years has been so remarkable that pessimistic forecasting of its future for delivery cars is decidedly irrelevant.

Light gasoline automobiles, carrying about five hundred pounds' load, are being produced in considerable quantity in this country, and sell for eight hundred and fifty dollars apiece. Heavier cars, carrying fifteen hundred and two thousand pounds, and up to as much as five tons, are being produced also, though not in such large quantities. A gasoline automobile of one ton capacity costs about the same as an electric car of equal capacity, or very close to twenty-five hundred dollars. A big five-ton truck costs about five thousand dollars. Foreign manufacturers are now giving much attention to this type, and some good thirty-six-passenger omnibuses have been produced in England. Well-known manufacturers of gasoline pleasure vehicles on the Continent have built excellent gasoline cars for delivery purposes as well as for omnibus service. Conditions are such, however, that few of these cars are on the market or are being sold in quantity. Thus, interesting figures relating to first cost and cost of operation are not readily obtainable.

Gasoline automobiles use electricity only for the sparking apparatus, so that the very considerable costs for charging and maintaining storage batteries are eliminated. The cost of fuel and lubricating oil, however, must be considered. Gasoline has gone up in price, in recent years, and now costs about fifteen cents per gallon, although in barrel lots it can be obtained for less than this,—say twelve cents a

gallon. This is almost twice what it was five years ago, and owing to the limited supply and the ever-increasing demand, it is likely that other liquid fuels will in time have to be employed. Alcohol is an excellent possibility, and, although its heat of combustion is less than that of gasoline, higher compression may be carried in an engine, thus making economy possible. The future of alcohol as a fuel for internal-combustion motors seems bright, and interesting experiments are being made on the other side of the water, the French department of agriculture being particularly active in this connection.

Some interesting figures regarding gasoline consumption are obtainable from the results of the service trial of automobiles held last April. A five-hundred-pound gasoline delivery wagon, operating thirty miles per day, should consume about two gallons of fuel in this distance; a two-thousand-pound car, operating similarly, seems to use twice this amount, or four gallons per day; a combination gasoline and electric truck carrying ten thousand pounds, operated daily in the test for about the same distance, consumes practically twenty gallons per day. These figures represent pretty good economy, so the higher price of fuel will be taken. For a year, then, the cost for gasoline would be as follows, assuming a thirty-mile daily run and the vehicle to be operated three hundred days in the year:

Light car, 600 gallons, at 15 cents	\$90.00
One-ton car, 1,200 gallons, at 15 cents	180.00
Five-ton car, 2,000 gallons, at 15 cents	300.00

In each case, the cost per ton-mile is as follows:

Light car.....	4 cents.
One-ton car.....	2 cents.
Five-ton car.....	1 cent.

It will be noticed that the fuel charge decreases with the increased size of the vehicle,—an interesting fact, and substantiating the claim often made by automobile engineers that heavy

A FIVE-TON TRUCK (AMERICAN).

(Motive power obtained from storage batteries. Interesting, as showing one of the uses to which a vehicle of this kind can be put.)

hauling can be done more economically than light delivery work. Repairs are difficult to estimate, and may be considerable, as gasoline cars require considerable adjustment in order to keep them running at their best. Lubricants, in a general way, may be expected to cost about 10 per cent. of the amount expended annually for fuel.

The steam vehicle for business purposes has been most used in England, where it is employed for very heavy hauling work. In France, as well, considerable attention has been given to steam trucks, though not nearly to such an extent as in England, where at least half-a-dozen manufacturers are busily engaged in the production of vehicles of this sort. Several hundred heavy steam trucks, or lorries, are now operating in and about the city of London. In this country, comparatively few delivery cars of this power have been built, although some of those constructed for experimental purposes have done very good work.

From the above it will be seen that it is only necessary to consider, here, the heavy steam vehicles. A specially interesting study may be made of the performances of these cars, and of their economical relation to horse-drawn trucks. (One case only will be cited here, and it probably represents what ordinarily might be expected from the operation of a vehicle of this kind on good English roads.)

A milling concern in an English city purchased a steam truck, five tons' capacity, for \$2,500. In one year, the truck ran 5,275 miles, carrying 3,870 tons, the total cost being \$1,900, this including interest on first cost and wear and tear. The various items will be given below and compared with the items of cost for operating seven horses in 1902 which were displaced by the purchase and use of the automobile.

One steam lorry, in 1903.

	£	s.	d.
Wages:			
Driver, at 35 shillings.....	91	0	0
One man, at 26 shillings.....	67	12	0
	158	12	0
Repairs.....	44	7	0
Oil.....	16	12	10
Coal, 41¼ tons.....	49	0	0
Insurance.....	11	18	0
Interest on cost.....	25	0	0
Depreciation.....	70	0	0
Incidentals.....	4	10	2
	£290	0	0

Seven horses, in 1902:

	£	s.	d.
Horse food.....	271	0	0
Wages—two carriers, at 24 shillings per week.....	124	16	0
Shoeing account.....	30	14	8
Veterinary bill.....	8	10	8
Repairs—vans and harness.....	11	2	9
Interest on capital			
Seven horses, at £20, £350; 2 vans, carts,			
etc., £20,—total, £400, at 5 per cent.....	20	10	0
Depreciation on horses, vans, etc.....	50	0	0
Incidentals.....	3	6	1
	£520	0	0

This company states that it is likely seven horses could not have done the work performed by the steam truck, as the year was an unusually rainy one and the roads continually in a very bad state. In looking over the figures, it will be noticed that the wage item is greater with the steam truck than with the horse truck. In time, this should not be the case. Combining the shoeing account and the veterinary bill, repairs on harness, etc., we find that the amount thus obtained is greater than the repairs on the steam truck for one year, the saving amounting to twenty-five dollars. The cost of the horse feed for the year exceeds the cost of fuel and lubricants in the steam truck by almost one thousand dollars.

It is interesting to observe that the valuation on the horse outfit is two thousand dollars, against twenty-five hundred dollars for the truck. Note that this firm has estimated 14 per cent. yearly depreciation, a very reasonable allowance.

If any one motive power should survive as the final one, it would seem that this would be due to the fact that only one system is wanted, for the sake of convenience, rather than to the fact that it is the best for all branches of work to be performed by business automobiles. But this is not likely to be the result. In a general way, the electric car seems best suited for level cities and for transporting loads of from medium weight to heavy weight; the steam car is best for the biggest and heaviest trucks; and for quick light to medium weight delivery service,

A CURIOUS USE OF THE COMMERCIAL AUTOMOBILE.

(The vehicle shown is a street-cleaning truck [English] intended for municipal purposes. Shown ready for use in cleaning streets. The squeegee can be removed and the top compartment can be used for street refuse or water. The water-sprinkler is placed at the rear of the car, between the rear wheels and the sweeper.)

where the length of the haul may be considerable, it is doubtful if the internal-combustion motor can ever be equaled.

In referring to possible limitations or disadvantages of business automobiles, we must not forget similar limitations and disadvantages of the horse-drawn car. For instance, consider the influence of bad streets and bad weather,—this militates against the horse as much as against the automobile, if not more so. A thin coating of ice on Fifth Avenue, in New York, practically arrests horse traffic, although not affecting the movement of automobiles. There were some striking demonstrations of this last winter. In a measure, the tire expense parallels the cost of shoeing horses, although it is much greater. Here the horse has a material advantage, for the problem of getting durable tires is a most difficult one; as a matter of fact, it is the greatest single expense in maintaining a touring car to-day. That this problem can be met, there can be no doubt; once solved, it means a great step forward, a big barrier removed. Tires for very heavy trucks are often and very properly made of steel, so that in this case the problem requires no attention.

Granted that the horse is not cleanly, and that his hoofs make a noise, how about the automobile? The exhaust and cinders from a steam truck, the noisy and evil-smelling exhaust of certain gasoline cars, the dripping of oil, the difficulty of cleaning a storage battery,—these are some of the objections that might be pointed out. What was it that Rabelais said about "*cinq milles charrettes des diables*?" Suppose five thousand gasoline cars having the most pronounced gasoline car characteristics to operate continually in a confined section of New York City,—we can see the shade of the departed

Rabelais nod approval,—only in this case it would be five thousand devil wagons instead of five thousand wagons filled with fiends.

But even now automobiles are more cleanly than horses. Each year they become more quiet, more convenient to care for, and more desirable from half a hundred æsthetical and utilitarian standpoints.

And as to safety: Are business automobiles going to be safer than horses? Are accidents to be frequent, causing injury and loss of life to persons, as well as loss of money to firms employing business autos? Certainly, automobiles can be driven much faster than horse vehicles with equal safety. On the other hand, it has

A HEAVY TRUCK IN OPERATION.

(The motive power is being used for another purpose than driving the car. A mechanically operated crane facilitates the loading of heavy cases, which would be difficult to move by hand.)

have their path set aside for them, as in the case of the trolley.

As to the trolley car itself, it is not yet known what development this will have, or what the effect of its growth will be on business automobiles. Some freight is already being carried by trolley cars, and under almost ideal conditions. The tire problem and the road problem are both eliminated; the power is always "on tap," made by a few experts and used by many not experts. But the trolley car has not the nobility of the auto; it cannot leave its track; it cannot run up and down side streets or out in the country and back at will. Its field is limited, while that of the commercial automobile is practically unlimited.

THE BUSINESS AUTOMOBILE IN SOUTH AFRICA.

(This illustration shows a heavy truck equipped with powerful engines to enable it to be used on South African roads. The machinery is all inclosed, and protected against dust and dirt.)

been pointed out that while the horse is an intelligent animal, the automobile is a brainless machine.—one will take care of itself if the driver be suddenly smitten down; the other may run amuck. We have seen automobiles do this, and must not forget that their power may be applied for harm as well as good. But accidents have been few, very few, and the absolute and instant control of an automobile by its operator has doubtless prevented many an accident which would have occurred with a less quickly operated horse and wagon. One source of danger is this,—whereas trolleys have their rails, automobiles are free to wander at the will of the operator. But improved municipal conditions will take care of this, and either street grade crossings will cease to exist or automobiles will

THIS ILLUSTRATION FAIRLY REPRESENTS THE ENGLISH TYPE OF SUBSTANTIALLY CONSTRUCTED STEAM TRUCK.

(Coke or coal is used for fuel, although wood can be used in districts where coal is scarce. A five-ton truck of this pattern has hauled seven tons fifty-four miles in one day. Twenty vehicles are used in an English city by a firm doing general forwarding work.)

TWO EXPERIMENTS IN THE TAXATION OF FRANCHISES.

I.—THE SPECIAL FRANCHISE TAX IN NEW YORK.

BY EDWIN R. A. SELIGMAN.

(Professor of Political Economy and Finance, Columbia University, New York.)

MOST people have only a vague impression of what the special franchise tax is. Every one, of course, knows that by the franchise in question is meant the franchise of a corporation. But few are aware of the fact that a franchise denotes three different things.

First, is what the Supreme Court calls the right to become or to be. The State accords to a certain number of individuals the privilege to become a corporation. This is often called a franchise, and the tax imposed on it a franchise tax. Usually, however, it is more properly termed an incorporation or charter fee. In New York, it is called an organization tax when applied to domestic corporations, and a license tax when applied to foreign corporations. It is a small tax on capital paid when the corporation is organized or begins business in this State.

The second kind of franchise is the franchise to do or to act,—the privilege not simply to become a corporation, but to carry on business. This is the kind of franchise which is sought to be reached when the law imposes a general tax as distinct from the charter fee. In New York, it is called the annual franchise tax, levied on nearly all corporations, and computed on the basis of capital stock, varying with the rate of dividends. An additional tax is imposed on the gross earnings of transportation and transmission companies, and in the case of insurance companies, horse or electric railways, and water, light, or power companies, the tax is assessed on premiums, gross earnings, or dividends. All these taxes are levied for State purposes alone.

Finally, there exists in New York a third kind of franchise,—not a franchise to become, not a franchise to act, but a franchise to make use of certain local privileges. This applies to quasi-public local corporations, like street railways and gas companies. It is a franchise to use the public streets, to burrow beneath them, or to go above them. It is this which is called in New York a special franchise. Thus, there are three kinds of corporate franchises,—the franchise to become, the franchise to do or to act, and the franchise to make use of certain local privileges.

The first two are taxed for State purposes; the third, only for local purposes.

The general franchise tax is an outgrowth of the difficulty experienced by the States in applying the general property tax to corporations. The property tax as assessed on corporations by local officials has almost everywhere proved to be a dismal failure.

But why, it will be asked, should the new tax be called a franchise tax rather than a property tax? In the first place, if we call it a franchise tax we avoid a great many embarrassments which attach to the same impost if called a property tax. For instance, our State constitutions commonly require uniform taxation of all property. Consequently, if corporate property is taxed as such, it must be assessed in precisely the same way as that of individuals. This, however, has proved to be impracticable. Hence, in order to be able to reach the property in a little different way, the tax is called a franchise tax. This illustrates the utility of legal fictions.

Secondly, the federal Constitution imposes restrictions upon the taxation of interstate commerce. If a State taxes property, it cannot reach property employed in interstate commerce. But if it calls the tax a franchise tax, even though the franchise be measured by some such standard as property or earnings, the Supreme Court holds that this is not repugnant to the Constitution. The franchise tax is, therefore, a mode of evading certain constitutional restrictions.

Not only have franchise taxes become important for these reasons, but in many States it is provided that franchises should be taxed, or that the value of corporate property for tax purposes should be deemed to include the value of the franchise. As a consequence, the questions have been almost everywhere forced upon us,—what is a franchise, and how shall it be measured? In New York, so far as State taxation is concerned, these questions have not arisen, because the law governing State taxation does not call for any separate measurement of franchises, and prescribes definite methods of tax-

tion for those imposts which happen to be called franchise taxes.

It is, however, in local finance that the question has come to the front. This is due to the fact that corporations are still taxable for local purposes in New York, according to the primitive system of the general property tax. The local officials are required to assess the real estate, and to add to this the value of the capital stock, less the value of the realty. In New York, however, in the case of personalty, a deduction for debts is permitted. The bonds of a corporation are its debts. Accordingly, all that is necessary in order to escape taxation on personalty is to create a bonded indebtedness a little larger than the capital stock. A few years ago, the assessors in New York City attempted to include in the assessment of a corporation the value of its franchise. The court held, in the Union Trust Company case (1891), that by capital stock is meant the capital of the corporation existing in money or property, and not the market value of the shares. The franchise of a corporation, therefore, although undeniably property, constitutes no part of its capital, and hence is not taxable. This decision was extended, in the Manhattan Railway Company case in 1895, so as to include not merely the franchise to do business, but also the franchise to use the streets, which, from other points of view, is deemed to be property. As a consequence, franchises were virtually exempt.

It was this decision which led Senator Ford to adopt the ingenious device of calling these franchises real estate. The point of this device is that in New York deductions are not permitted for debts on real estate, although they are allowed for debts on personalty.

The law of 1899 provides that hereafter real estate should be so defined as to include "the value of all franchises, rights, authority, or permissions to construct, maintain, or operate in, under, above, upon, or through any streets, highways, or public places, any mains, pipes, tanks, conduits, or wires, with their appurtenances, for conducting water, steam heat, light, power, gas, oil, or other substance, or electricity for telegraphing, telephoning, or other purposes." Such franchises, moreover, are to be known as "special franchises."

Under the original law, the assessment of special franchises was, like that of all other property, put into the hands of the local assessors. It was, however, represented by some of the leading corporations that it would be far preferable to have the assessment made by a State board. This amendment was accordingly adopted. Yet, immediately after the adoption of the law, the constitutionality of the act was

assailed, among other reasons, on the very ground that the assessment by State officials would violate the principle of home rule.

The State Board of Tax Commissioners proceeded to assess the value of these special franchises. In many places the assessments were accepted and the tax was paid. The State Board tells us that over 80 per cent. of the assessments outside of New York City were paid. This, however, does not mean much, as out of a total real-estate assessment of \$284,000,000 for special franchises in 1903, those in New York City alone aggregated over \$235,000,000.

The chief grounds on which the validity of the act was contested are as follows:

1. It is a violation of the home-rule provisions of the State constitution.
2. It is a violation of the provision of the federal Constitution, which prohibits a State from passing any law which impairs the obligation of contracts.
3. The State Board did not adopt any certain or fixed rule or method in making the assessment.
4. Franchise values were assessed at one hundred cents on the dollar, whereas other real estate was assessed at a lower rate.

All these objections, as well as minor points, were met, in the opinion of ex-Judge Robert Earl, who acted as referee. Although his decision was reversed by the Appellate Division, it was upheld, a few months ago, by the Court of Appeals in 174, N. Y., 417. It was there decided that the grant of a general franchise to a corporation to live and to do business gives no right to occupy the public highways without special authority; that a franchise, whether general or special, is taxable as a species of property; and that the law imposing such a tax is a violation neither of the State nor of the federal Constitution. With reference to the home-rule provisions, the decision draws a line of distinction between local officers, whose functions are purely local, and State officials authorized to carry out the provision of a new system of taxation, requiring the exercise of new functions which never belonged to local assessors. In short, the law was upheld in every point. An appeal has now been taken to the Supreme Court at Washington, and it is understood that the case will be argued in October. The State officials declare themselves confident that the decision will not be reversed.

It is obvious why the case is being so hotly contested. There is virtually no chance of evading the tax, which means an increase of from 25 to 50 per cent. in the amount paid. According to the figures contained in the last re-

port of the State Board, the surface street railways were assessed for special franchises in 1902 at \$169,047,481, while the total assessment of their entire property was \$209,032,149. If we take as a basis the local tax rate of New York City, which is about 1.41, this would mean a total local tax of \$2,947,735, whereas in 1902 the total local tax under the old system amounted to \$2,337,444. The difference represents an increase of over 25 per cent. In the case of gas companies, special franchises were assessed at \$50,565,840, and the entire property at \$109,650,218. At the same rate this would mean a tax of over \$1,546,065, as against local taxes in 1902 of \$1,032,879, or an increase of almost 50 per cent. Figured in proportion to the gross and net earnings (understanding by the latter term gross earnings less operating expenses plus interest), the taxes on surface street railways, on the basis of the last assessments, would be 5.25 per cent. of the gross receipts for special franchise alone. The total local taxes would be 6.48 per cent. of the gross receipts. If we add to this the State taxes, the entire sum paid in taxation would amount to almost 8 per cent. of gross receipts, or about 27 per cent. of net receipts. This, it will be seen, is far higher than in New Jersey, where a special franchise tax is levied on gross receipts at the rate of only 2 per cent. Under the system of taxation in New York, therefore, if it is finally upheld, surface street railways will pay in taxation considerably over one-fourth of their entire net earnings. The calculation for the other classes of quasi-public corporations can easily be made from the reports.

From the economic point of view, the assessment of a franchise as real estate is immaterial. A franchise may be called that element of corporate value which is over and above the tangible, physical property. It is an ingredient of the property because the income that is earned by the corporation comes out of its entire property, its physical property plus the opportunity to utilize this property. Economically, a franchise may be called real estate or personality; it is both, and it is neither. In theory, it attaches to real estate as much as to tangible personality. It is an indefinable something which makes the real estate, and which equally makes the tangible personality, worth what it sells for.

In Europe the franchise question does not exist, because corporations, like individuals, are taxed on the basis of earnings. In this country, property, and not earnings, forms the basis of assessment. The value of property, however, is always the capitalization of present and estimated future earnings. A franchise contributes to the earnings as much as does any other form of property, and is thus equally taxable.

The special franchise law does not prescribe any specific method of assessment, as is the case in many other States. Everything is left to the discretion of the State Board. What the public is interested in, however, is not so much the method of assessment as the result. The result in New York will undoubtedly be to make public-service corporations contribute to the expenses of local government in a considerably larger degree than has hitherto been the case.

II.—THE TAXATION OF BANK FRANCHISES.

BY PROFESSOR CARL C. PLEHN.

(Of the University of California.)

THE Supreme Court of California has recently handed down a very important decision relating to the taxation of corporate franchises, and especially of the franchises of banking corporations. The case is that of the Bank of California *versus* the City and County of San Francisco, decided on February 18, 1904. The decision sustains an assessment of \$750,000 upon the franchise of the bank. Aside from the interest which attaches to the decision on account of its bearing on problems of taxation, it is of importance as giving an almost fatal blow to the system of great State banks which has prevailed in California. It is felt that such banks

may now be forced to surrender their State charters and pass into the national banking system or reorganize as copartnerships.

Franchises are specifically mentioned in the constitution of the State in the list of property subject to taxation, and it is further prescribed that all property shall be taxed in proportion to its value. Franchises were defined by the Supreme Court in an early case (*Spring Valley Water Works versus Schottler*, 62, Cal. 69) as "special privileges conferred by government on individuals, and which do not belong to the citizens of the country generally by common right." Under this construction, valuable franchises of

a monopolistic character, like those of public-service corporations, have been quite universally taxed in California, but there has always been a doubt, which has resulted in a variety of practice, whether simple franchises conferring merely the right to be a corporation were taxable, and, if so, whether they were taxable for more than their cost,—namely, the fees charged for incorporation. The present decision makes the latter class of franchises taxable and leaves the determination of their value entirely to the discretion of the assessor, without its being subject to review by the courts.

The series of events which led to this case make an interesting and instructive story. Among the items of personal property which most frequently and conspicuously escape taxation in California are money and credits. These under the law are taxable to the owners, and the banks are allowed to deduct from their total assets all amounts due depositors, as the latter are supposed to return these on their own statements to the assessors. This the owners or depositors do not do. Instigated by a desire to place some of this elusive property on the tax rolls, the assessors have for some years been treating the banks with ever-increasing severity, and in 1896 they succeeded in obtaining the assistance of the bank commissioners in the matter of getting more complete statements from the banks. Real estate in San Francisco is assessed at from 50 to 60 per cent. of its market value, but the banks have been assessed for some years past on the full par value of all their taxable assets, and lately the attempt has been made to increase those assets by including franchises. The only justification of this severity is that the customers of the banks evade taxation.

California, as is well known, did not take kindly to the *régime* of paper money beginning with the Civil War, and has remained to this day on a gold basis, the yellow coins being in common circulation and paper money practically unknown except where the Eastern tourists abound. On that account there was little inducement for the banks to enter the national banking system, and many remained outside under State charters. But the hostile action on the part of the assessors drove a number of the banks to surrender their State charters and find refuge under the wing of the federal government. Here for a time they enjoyed considerable immunity from taxation, as the State law had not made adequate provision for taxing national banks. But in 1900 the law was amended so that national banks could be assessed and

taxed by that method which is provided by federal law and approved by the United States Supreme Court. Then the movement into the national banking system ceased.

The assessment of the franchise of the Bank of California at three-quarters of a million was a particularly vigorous attempt to reach personality in some form, whether in the hands of the owners or elsewhere. The decision of the court sustaining this assessment is not unanimous, two of the six justices participating in the case writing brief but vigorous dissenting opinions. One of the two is the chief justice. The argument of the dissenting opinions is, in the main, that the franchise of a banking corporation, although it may be taxable property, is not valuable property,—being, as it is pointed out, not vendible,—and an assessment upon such a franchise for so large an amount, as in this case, is virtually an assessment, not upon the franchise, but upon the good-will of the corporation. As the good-will of natural persons is not taxable, to tax that of a corporation constitutes unjust discrimination. Yet the decision stands, and while it stands makes an important addition to the law relating to taxation. If the reasoning of the court is carried to its logical conclusion, the new principle will apply to all corporations. There is nothing in the opinion which confines it to banks alone. This, unless remedied by legislation, will place a handicap on all business enterprises conducted by corporations when in competition with copartnerships.

Whether the "franchise" of a corporation,—its mere right to be a corporation, distinct from any special privileges it may enjoy,—can be properly defined, for purposes of taxation, so as to include the good-will of the business is a purely legal question, almost a legal quibble. But back of it lies the far more important economic question, how should such intangible wealth as good-will be taxed,—as property, or through its earning power? One of the most instructive features of the case we have before us is the revelation it made of the amount of such wealth. No less than three out of the eight millions, at which the stock of the Bank of California is valued in the market, were attributed to the good-will. It is generally conceded that we can succeed to a very limited extent in reaching the tax-paying ability represented by intangible wealth, by any extension of the present methods of property taxation. The rapid growth of such wealth forcibly suggests the necessity for such a reconstruction of our system of State and local taxation as shall make an equitable distribution of the burden possible.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE CZAR'S LIMITED POWER.

HOW little the present Czar of all the Russias really has to say in the administration of his vast empire is graphically presented by Dr. Wolf von Schierbrand in an article in *Leslie's Monthly Magazine*. All that the world knows of Nicholas II., says this writer, testifies to his admirable qualities as a man, but not as a ruler. Russia needs the iron hand of a strong-willed, purposeful monarch, qualities of mind and character which Nicholas II., unfortunately, does not possess. Once in a while, says Dr. von Schierbrand, the Czar is permitted to have his own way. Such a case was that of the Hague international peace convention.

"While the unsuspecting world heralded that scheme as a harbinger of mutual good-will among the nations, as an abandonment of Russia's aggressive foreign policy, the various chancelleries of the leading nations received the accompanying manifesto with a dubious smile.

"The thing is deeply pathetic. Here was Nicholas II., with a heart full of love for his people and the world, lying awake nights making plans for the good of mankind. His days he passed in hard toil with the same purpose in mind, conscientiously examining basketfuls of official documents, petitions, complaints, and all sorts of measures proposed for the apparent amelioration of the condition of the Russian masses.

"Meanwhile, the men in whom he trusted, the real heads of the government, kept him in total ignorance of the actual state of affairs. He was made to see everything through their spectacles. It is the irony of fate that the very vastness of his empire makes it impossible for Nicholas II. to be anything but a figurehead. His trusting nature is his worst pitfall.

A FAITHFUL SON OF THE CHURCH.

"The Czar is very devout, a faithful son of the orthodox church, and this was the lever cleverly employed by the dreaded Chief Procurator of the Holy Synod, Pobiedonostseff, in bending his master to his nefarious plans. The Czar had solemnly sworn to support and maintain the constitution of the Grand Duchy of Finland, one of the most important dependencies of his crown, both in population and resources. Pobiedonostseff overcame the scruples of the Czar's tender

conscience and made him break his solemn oath. He did this by representing plausibly to the Czar that the safety of the empire and the interests of the orthodox church demanded the complete Russification of Finland. All protests of Finland's loyal subjects proved in vain. General Bobrikoff was sent as governor-general to Finland to suppress ruthlessly all opposition there to Russification. Finnish petitions were rejected by the Czar; Finnish delegations were not admitted to his presence; Finnish patriots were exiled or expelled and their property confiscated; the Finnish press was suppressed; the Finnish legislative body was rendered powerless and subjected to indignities; the whole former grand duchy, now a mere Russian province, was reduced to the quiet of a graveyard.

"Nicholas II. was prevailed upon by Pobiedonostseff to look upon all this as the carrying out of the will of the Most High, as the fulfillment of the command of Heaven, undertaken for the welfare of the nation and for the good of the orthodox church. Even a solemn oath did not weigh in the scale against such high purposes."

Pobiedonostseff this writer calls the chief evil genius of Nicholas II. The Czar has been cruelly misinformed as to the domestic and foreign policies of the empire.

"Nicholas II. for ten years has been placidly slumbering on the pillow of duty well done. Never for a moment has he suspected that he has been but a pawn on the chessboard, to be pushed whither the superior minds of his trusted advisers should choose. Thus it has come to pass that while the Autocrat of all the Russias has been led into the belief that Russian expansion in the far East was proceeding resistlessly, and that her 'benign' sway was being accepted with enthusiasm by Mongolians, Chinese, and even Japanese, the war cloud has burst upon him unawares. Similarly, the forces at his disposal, on land and sea, their efficiency and availability, have been misrepresented to him. The blame for this deplorable condition of affairs,—that is, from Russia's point of view,—must rest, not only with Pobiedonostseff and Plehve, but even in larger measure with the man who has overtopped them all in influence, Witte, and the men acting under his impetus."

RUSSIAN AUTOCRACY AND THE WAR.

A SCATHING denunciation of the Russian autocratic bureaucracy which brought about the war with Japan appears in the *Osvobodnitsy*, the organ of the Russian Constitutional party, published in Stuttgart and circulated extensively throughout the empire. The writer, who does not sign his name, believes that Japan was fully justified in beginning the war. She was deprived of her ascendancy in Korea, and especially of Port Arthur, which she had gained as a prize in the Chinese war. Russia has a great task before her. He continues:

"The struggle will be a stubborn one, and will demand great sacrifices. It would be criminal, at the present time, to conceal the seriousness of our position, for all the inflated patriotic effusions and the triumphant shouting of the jingoes will not stifle the voice of truth. Our eyes should not be closed to the fact," he continues, "that the misfortunes of an external war overwhelmed Russia at a time when the internal affairs of the country were in a sad plight.

RUSSIA WORSE THAN UNPREPARED.

"A series of far-reaching economic upheavals in the national life, the disorganization in all the departments of government, and the popular restlessness caused by a lack of confidence in the government,—all made imperative an immediate and thorough reorganization.

"The government measures in internal administration could not contribute to the strengthening of a healthy, vigorous national spirit, which would increase tenfold the nation's power for the triumphs of peace, as well as those of war. The persecutions directed against the free expression

of opinion, the brutal, cynical disregard of law and the rights of individuals and of public institutions, the suppression of the least growth of social initiative, and the manifestation of coarse, exulting brutality unhindered by any moral restraint are not at all calculated to strengthen the moral authority of government in the eyes of thinking men. The minister [von Plehve] who, unrestrained, directs the entire internal administration of Russia, skilled only in police tricks, and basing all his plans on the intimidated state of Russian society, is not a statesman for times of danger, capable of solving the difficult and responsible problem of internal peace.

"We see the utter incapacity to provide for the crying needs of the empire and the announcement from the throne of reforms which create either misunderstandings or hidden resentment. This is a cowardly, timid statesmanship, persistent only in its guarding of the power of bureaucratic rule. Vacillating, and full of contradictions, the indefinite and reactionary moods of the monarch are utilized by the courtiers and officials for their own selfish ends. Instead of an intelligent and moral cooperation with the people, the supreme governing power seeks support in the superstition and in the debauched instincts which cause the decay of the state's vitality. Those who speak and act in the name of Russia have disgraced her by shameless acts."

HOME PROBLEMS OF THE EMPIRE.

Russia has been forced into an inglorious and thoughtless war, he says, and asks, "Why are we carrying on this war?"

"Are we fighting for the national life inter-

ests of Russia? To many, the term ice-free port serves as a magic watchword, but why should this ice-free port be on the Yellow Sea and not on the Persian Gulf? By expending our energies in the far East we are losing our influence in the near East, to which we are bound by vital interests, both moral and material. But are colonial possessions really necessary for Russia, and are we not paying too high a price for them? If the colonial expansion of England, Germany, and the United States find an explanation in the enormous excess of their population and in the colossal growth of their trade and industries that are seeking new markets, and also in the accumulation of capital that finds no demand in the home countries, none of these statements are applicable to Russia. Great tracts of fertile soil in the interior still remain unsettled; with more scientific methods of cultivation, the agricultural industries could sustain a much larger population. Our industries are in their infancy, and do not supply the home demand. Foreign capital is seizing upon many branches of Russian industry; our trade with China consists mostly of imports, and but little export."

It was Russia as an international power seek-

ing military predominance in the far East, and not Russia as a nation, that instituted the war. He concludes:

"We are repeating on an enormous scale in this Eastern enterprise all of our old mistakes, forgetting that we are living in the twentieth century, when the power of a state no longer rests on its number of armed soldiers, but on the mighty growth of national industry and national commerce. We have no public opinion. It is crushed, and cannot assert itself, nor even be formed. Nor is there a Russian government; there are merely separate departments, which are in constant war with one another; there is the many-headed hydra of bureaucracy, but there is no single and complete Russian government.

"Autocracy is not a government system, but the negation of all system; it is a blind, unfeeling force. It is necessary to free the Russian monarchy from autocracy, not merely for the sake of individual right, but for the sake of Russia. Let the idol of autocracy, the source of debauchery and indignity, be overthrown on the shores of the Yellow Sea, reddened by Russian blood."

JAPANESE SOCIALISTS AND THE WAR.

A RATHER interesting open letter from the Socialists of Japan to their brother Socialists of Russia appears in the *Heimin Shim-bun* (Tokio). The letter begins by reminding Russian Socialists that just twenty years ago they began "to preach under the banner of Social Democracy." It continues, in a remarkably courageous article:

"During that time, the persecutions of a despotic government and the cruel action of detectives have been such as have never before been seen. Your predecessors passed through the bitterest trials, having forsaken fame and fortune; and those who were shut up in prisons, exiled in desolate Siberia, or who perished on scaffolds were numberless. In spite of this, your agitation was not checked even in the slightest degree, but your courage always increased a hundredfold after each persecution. . . .

"Dear comrades: Your government and our government have plunged into fighting, at last, in order to satisfy their imperialistic desires, but to Socialists there is no barrier of race, territory, or nationality. We are comrades, brothers and sisters, and have no reason to fight each other. Your enemy is not the Japanese people, but our militarism and so-called patriotism. Nor is our

enemy the Russian people, but your militarism and so-called patriotism. . . .

"We cannot foresee which of the two governments shall win in fighting, but whichever gets the victory, the results of the war will be all the same—general misery, the burden of heavy taxes, the degradation of morality, and the supremacy of militarism. Therefore, the most important question before us is not which government shall win, but how soon can we bring the war to an end. The determination of the International Workmen's League in its agitations in the time of the Franco-Prussian War gives us a good lesson. We are comrades, brothers and sisters, and have no reason why we should fight."

Japanese Socialists for Peace.

An anonymous writer in the *Rikugi Zasshi*, a Japanese magazine, maintains that the entire Japanese people, without distinction of party or religion, is mad over war; that it thinks of nothing else, and that the Socialists are the only people in Japan who have escaped the contagion. Not only have they the courage to refuse to sing the war hymns with the others, says he, but they even dare to speak openly of the benefits of peace.

COUNT CASSINI ON RUSSIA'S POSITION IN THE FAR EAST.

THE statement by the Russian ambassador at Washington, Count Cassini, in the *North American Review* for May, partakes of the nature of an official utterance. Count Cassini prefaces his statement with the remark that he is actuated by the hope that it will be alike for the benefit of Russia and the readers of the magazine.

The ambassador declares, in the first place, that Russia's diplomacy has ever made for her own and the world's peace, and that it was in this spirit that she entered into negotiations with Japan last summer, in the fervent hope that an understanding satisfactory and honorable to all might be the result. Russia believed that Japan was actuated by the same sentiments, and she only saw her mistake when Japan, without fair warning, substituted arms for diplomacy; and then Russia realized that Japan was using diplomacy as a time-gaining device, that she might the better equip herself for the war upon which she appears all along to have been determined. "When I was in Paris last summer," says Count Cassini, "a prominent Japanese remarked to me, 'Before we meet again, our countries will be at war.' 'Why do you say that?' I asked. 'Russia's desire has always been for peace, and the war would not be of her making.' 'Certainly not,' he replied. 'It would be what my country has so long been hoping for and expecting. She needs a war to place her in the front rank of nations, and while your diplomacy may stave off hostilities a little while longer, Japan will get a war with you before a year has gone.'

"I hoped my Japanese friend was wrong; my government hoped so, and yet even then there were many evidences that he spoke the truth. The correctness of his statement was not fully appreciated, however, until the treacherous midnight attack on Port Arthur by Japanese torpedo boats while the Japanese minister at St. Petersburg was still enjoying the protection and the courtesies of the Russian Government, to whom he had only a short while before expressed the confident hope that war might yet be averted.

RUSSIA NOT EAGER FOR WAR.

"Russia has never ceased to wonder why the idea that she was willing and anxious to make war with Japan became so generally prevalent in the United States. Prejudiced minds, or those having nothing beyond a superficial knowledge of my government's position preceding the unexpected and dishonorable attack

upon our fleet at Port Arthur, may dispute the statement that Russia hoped for and tried to maintain peace, but I have no hesitation in making it.

THE PROOF: HER UNPREPAREDNESS.

"If proof of the assertion be demanded, it lies in the simple but uncontradicted answer—Russia was not prepared. For the personal representative of the Russian Emperor to make an admission seemingly so humiliating to national pride may appear strange and remarkable to the people of the United States, but it is made with full appreciation of its importance and significance.

"Faithfully adhering to the terms of her treaty with China respecting Manchuria, Russia had withdrawn the major portion of her troops from that province, until between sixty thousand and seventy thousand only remained. Such a proceeding makes ridiculous the allegation that Russia, actuated by designs upon not only Manchuria, but Korea, was from the first determined to possess this territory by force of arms, and that negotiations were prolonged for the purpose of giving opportunity for the concentration of the Russian forces upon Manchurian soil."

RUSSIA'S INTERESTS IN MANCHURIA.

Count Cassini then goes on to say that Russia is fighting for vast interests that it would be foolhardy for her to abandon. The fact that Russia, being foremost in developing Manchuria, has given her a privileged position in that territory, he says, will not be denied by fair-minded men. The idea that Russia gained her foothold through military conquest he declares to be erroneous. What was gained, he says, was through the pacific channels of diplomacy, and the privileges thus gained, he adds, have been exercised in a spirit of modern progressiveness, until now the flower of civilization blooms throughout a region that a few years ago was a desolate waste.

JAPAN AND KOREA.

Count Cassini then says that Japan became jealous of Russia's interests in Manchuria and endeavored to establish a parallel position in Korea. For Russia to have consented to such a parallel, he says, would have been to surrender a principle that the powers, including Japan, had recognized, in that they stood, or asserted that they stood, for the absolute independence of the Korean Empire.

The article then deals at length with the negotiations last summer.

ONE PHASE OF THE "YELLOW PERIL."

"It is not a thoughtless statement," writes the ambassador, "that were Japan to obtain supreme control in Manchuria the dominant military spirit of the Japanese would lead them to organize the Chinese into a modern army of such proportions that Europe and America would stand aghast at this menace to their peace and well-being. This is a phase of what has been called the 'yellow peril' that it would be well for the thoughtful and intelligent classes to consider carefully. The Chinese make good soldiers. To suppose them to be pusillanimous in character is erroneous. They are easily trained by competent instructors, and with a

population of more than four hundred and thirty millions to draw from, an army could be raised that, coöperating with Japan, might, with a reasonable show of confidence, defy the civilized world."

Count Cassini concludes his article by reciting the great advantage that would accrue to the commerce of the United States should Russia triumph in the present conflict. Should Japan win, she, making the same goods that America manufactures, and making them cheaper than America can make them, would be able to supply this demand herself.

"On the other hand," says Count Cassini, "Manchuria stands under Russian control with a friendly hand extended to the United States, and Japan given no encouragement. To my mind, the conclusion is obvious."

SCANDINAVIA AND THE WAR IN THE FAR EAST.

NO matter how the present Russo-Japanese war may end, the Scandinavian countries must be prepared for all possible eventualities. This is the editorial counsel of *Varia*, the illustrated monthly of Stockholm. Swedes and Norwegians have been much exercised over the oppression of Finland. Says the *Varia*, in commenting on the increase in the term of military service in Sweden:

"Knowing only too well the unappeasable land-hunger of the Muscovite, the Swedish Government has arranged for extensive mobilization, in order to assure the readiness of the army. One of the most important points, from a strategic view, is occupied by the island of Gothland, situated in the midst of the Baltic, rightly known as 'the eye of the Baltic.' This island is now heavily fortified and garrisoned." Sweden must take still further measures to insure her safety, says this magazine, which is pleased that the harbors of Stockholm and other Swedish cities have been mined and garrisoned.

The Scandinavian press in general fears to give utterance to any convictions that might incur the hostility of Russia, but the *Varia*, in a rather unusual article, speaks out boldly about the war in the far East. The interests and sympathies of the European nations, it says, are more evenly divided than the rest of the world imagines.

THE DIVISION OF EUROPEAN SYMPATHY.

"Those powers that desire the advance of culture, liberty, and progress, as England (and America), sympathize with Japan, while those

nations that stand for militarism, despotism, and the repression of the rights and privileges of the masses,—that is to say, the powers that still oppress and hinder the progress of liberty and en-

M. VON FLEHVE.

(The Russian minister of the interior who, the Swedes fear, is planning encroachments on Scandinavian territory.)

lightenment in the nations of Europe,—are hoping for the success of Russia."

In the latter class, says the *Varia*, stands Prussia, whose "old-time friendship for Russia is not diverted, notwithstanding the latter's alliance with France." It continues: "Did not

the German Emperor send the autocrat of all the Russias a helmet as a token of encouragement, while his government shows an admirable partisan zeal in preventing the escape of Russian subjects from the rigors of deportation to Siberia or other hopeless confinement in Russian prisons?" Japan's success has been a most disagreeable surprise to Europe, this Swedish magazine declares.

"We have been long accustomed to regard foreign peoples with a sense of distinct superiority, and the easy victories that have been won over Asiatic races, such as the Chinese, have not served to lessen our contempt for their prowess. But now we are contemplating a development of which no European dreamed. . . . The regeneration of Japan during the past half-century has seemed incomprehensible to Europeans, and they have never been able to reconcile themselves to it. One is constantly hearing the assertion that the reforms in Japan are moving altogether too quickly to last, and that they do not go deep enough. But the value of such prophecies seems to be steadily diminished by fact and experience. . . . Even if the development of Japan under less gifted rulers and statesmen

should be brought to a standstill, it is impossible to conceive that the work of the present emperor and his counselors can be entirely lost. The effect of a successful war would in any event serve only to strengthen it.

WHAT JAPAN HAS DONE.

"What the present emperor of Japan, Mutsuhito, together with his counselors, has performed seems almost to surpass everything that one has been accustomed to admire in the greatest rulers and statesmen of the world. It serves to elevate him immeasurably above rulers of the stamp of Czar Peter I., surnamed the Great, who could not, with all his tyranny, elevate his people above that half-barbaric state in which it still remains even to this day."

Whether Japan wins or not, says this magazine, she has demonstrated her right to be classed as a world-power. "If, by the shortsightedness of the European powers, Japan should once more be robbed of the material fruits of a victory, her energetic and progressive people will in any event have established their position, and right to occupy a prominent place among civilized nations."

JAPAN'S DIPLOMATIC FAILURE—A JAPANESE VIEW.

RUSO-JAPANESE diplomatic relations form the subject of most of the discussion in recent issues of Japanese magazines which have reached this country. In the new review, the *Jidai-Shicho* (Tokio), for February, Mr. Y. Takekoshi, a member of the Imperial Parliament, has an article on "The Real Status of Our Recent Diplomacy," in which he accuses Japan of serious diplomatic blunders in the negotiations with Russia before the war. Beginning with the period before the Boxer uprising, he says:

"Russia was busy in buying provisions and absorbing Chinese silver through the agency of the Russo-Chinese Bank. The world was then left in the dark as to the real motive of Russia in making such preparations. But, after the Boxer disturbance, we have reason to believe that Russia had fully anticipated the coming trouble, she herself having instigated the leaders of the Boxers to rise against foreigners, thus scheming to expel American, English, and Japanese influence from the court of China. No wonder that Russia was very slow to come to rescue the diplomatic corps besieged by the Chinese mobs, notwithstanding the fact that she had a large army stationed at the frontier.

While the powers were engaged in fighting the Boxers, Russia was secretly rushing her army into Manchuria, sending a mere fraction of it to Peking to reluctantly join the powers. The Russian occupation of Manchuria was not the outcome of the Boxer rising; but the latter was no doubt the consequence of a well-prepared scheme on the part of Russia. Were Baron Komura aware of this fact, he must as well have known that Japan could not cause Russia to evacuate Manchuria by mere threatenings and demonstrations. Yet the baron and Premier Katsura seem to have expected to realize such impossibilities."

WAS BARON KOMURA PRO-RUSSIAN?

Mr. Takekoshi retains some doubt as to the popular belief that Marquis Ito is the leader of pro-Russian statesmen, but is fully confident that Baron Komura, as well as Mr. Kurino, Japanese minister to Russia, maintains pro-Russian opinion. When, in 1900, Baron Komura entered the Katsura cabinet as foreign minister, and Mr. Kurino was sent to Russia to represent Japan at St. Petersburg, it was generally understood that the baron would attempt to realize his diplomatic principle in regard to Japan's relations

with Russia. In fact, he seems to have been confident that he could induce Russia to enter a certain understanding with reference to the far-Eastern situation by means of diplomatic negotiation. In the meantime, Marquis Ito started on his tour around the world, on a special mission, it was alleged, to be executed at St. Petersburg. What that mission was has not been made public, but Mr. Takekoshi tells us that the marquis undoubtedly tried to come to an agreement with Russia concerning the sta-

by the Anglo-Japanese alliance were sufficient to lead the Katsura ministry to believe that it was not difficult to secure satisfactory concessions from Russia."

THE BLUNDER OF THE KATSURA CABINET.

"Led by the apparent change of Russia's attitude to believe that she would withdraw from Manchuria of her own free will, the Katsura ministry did not protest, either in October, 1902, or in April, 1903, which were respectively fixed by Russia as the first and second dates of evacuation. At the third date, which came on October 10, 1903, our statesmen were at last convinced that Russia had no intention of withdrawing. Then they secretly invited newspaper editors and public speakers to cry loudly against Russia's deceitfulness, in the childish hope that the northern power might be made to withdraw by means of demonstrations. Sensational news and jingoistic articles filled newspaper columns day after day. Public meetings of belligerent nature were held in rapid succession. But, strangely enough, even by this time our government did not seem to have made any definite overture to Russia. Nor did it have any idea of declaring war. Strongly determined as they appeared at home, our statesmen were as meek as possible in approaching Russia. But at the third date for evacuation, Russia's elaborate plan of absorbing Manchuria was practically completed. No sane man could have expected her to evacuate tamely."

JAPAN'S CLAIM.

At last, Japan is said to have proposed to Russia that there should be established a neutral zone of six miles on both sides of the Yalu, and that Manchuria and Korea should be made spheres of influence of Russia and Japan, respectively. Such a proposal was simply ridiculous, says Mr. Takekoshi. In his opinion, that Korea is Japan's sphere of influence needs no recognition by Russia. It is an incontrovertible fact. "Our government no doubt deceived the public when it declared that the main issue in the pending contention was that Russia's influence should be entirely withdrawn from Manchuria. Were we to recognize Russia's sphere of influence in Manchuria, we should wonder what we were struggling for. A war fought on behalf of such a cause would certainly prove a most meaningless one."

Despite the contention of the opposition, however, that the Katsura cabinet has blundered, Mr. Takekoshi leaves us in no doubt as to the entire unity of the Japanese people in the prosecution of the war.

BARON KOMURA.

(Japanese foreign minister.)

tus of Korea and Manchuria. Russia, however, cleverly avoided considering Japan's proposal seriously. Then, suddenly, came an invitation from England to Japan to form an alliance with her. This invitation, as it was unexpected and extraordinary, no doubt intoxicated the Katsura ministry, which flattered itself that Japan was beginning to be recognized as a world-power, while English statesmen took it rather lightly. Alarmed by the formation of the Anglo-Japanese alliance, Russia apparently began to change her attitude, and showed signs of courting Japan's *entente*, one of which was the appointment of Baron Rosen, who has been considered a pro-Japanese statesman, to be minister at Tokio. Was Russia really inclined to make any concession to Japan? Not at all, answers Mr. Takekoshi. "She was simply fooling us, preparing all the while for the time when she could deal us a decisive stroke. But Baron Komura's pro-Russian proclivities and the enchantment caused

THE FIRST MODERN MINISTER OF JAPAN.

ON the 14th of May, 1878, in the outskirts of Tokio, two samurais, disguised as peasants, stopped the carriage of Okoubo Tosimitsu, minister of the interior of the New Empire of Japan, and killed the minister and his coachman. This, says Louis Farges, in a review of Maurice Courant's book, "Ministers and Statesmen," in the *Revue Universelle*, was one of the last protestations of Old Japan against the new régime. Okoubo was one of the leading figures in the Restoration, which brought an end to the Tokougawa feudalism, restored the Emperor to his true rank, and began the present-day constitutional monarchy of Japan. The assassins were members of the oldest samurai families, which had taken part in the revolt of Saigo, in 1874. Okou-

bo's bling of the power and the splendor of the Shoguns, he played a decisive rôle. This rôle was not less brilliant, not less useful, in the events which followed. Okoubo had helped cut the cloth; he did much of the sewing of the garment. It was he who aided the first of the samurais to obtain an audience with the Emperor. He was almost the first of the class to become minister. It was he who, casting aside the prejudices of his caste, was chiefly instrumental in abolishing all ancient distinctions and in establishing, for Japan, absolute equality before the law. It was he who persuaded the Emperor to come out of his palace at Kioto ('where he lived way above the clouds') to come into actual contact with his people, and to build, first at Osaka, and then at Yedo, what afterward became the capital under the new name

OKOUBO TOSIMITSU, THE FIRST MODERN MINISTER OF JAPAN.

of Tokio. . . . Finally, it was he who, more than any others, succeeded in opening up Japan to foreigners, understanding, as he did, the necessity of adapting external relations to internal reforms. He himself journeyed to Europe and the United States to take part in this great work."

Before 1868, Japan had a government of the oligarchic and feudal type; she has become a parliamentary monarchy, in which all Japanese are equal before the law. She tried to guard herself jealously against the diabolical inventions of Occidental civilization; she has ended by adopting, in less than a quarter of a century, the greater number of the scientific discoveries of the West, from the Gregorian calendar and vaccination even to military uniforms and railroads.

Japan, concludes M. Farges, "should always keep in her memory this man of simplicity, fidelity, and devotion. . . . The entire civilized world can bow with respect before this Asiatic, whose name is no longer spoken, but who was a real statesman and patriot."

BARON SHIBURAWA.

(The greatest industrial power in Japan, made possible by the policy of which Tosimitsu was the initiator.)

bo had traveled considerably and studied extensively in Europe, and had become imbued with the spirit of Western progress. His return to his native country, in 1868, was happily coincident with the culmination of that development which brought Japan in line with the nations of the modern world.

"Okoubo had been one of the most resolute workers in the revolution. He was, at the moment of his death, the most energetic, and, at the same time, the most methodical, of the reformers who on the ruins of the ancient feudal and hermit Nippon were building the New Japan, up to date, and open to the world. . . . In the events which preceded that memorable day of January 2, 1868, which saw the crum-

RELIGIOUS JAPAN AND HER NEEDS.

ONE of the most serious of the problems which face modern Japan is the modification of her ethical system to meet the demands of the present day. The Bushido, the code of morals developed by feudalism, had for its chief tenet: "*Shukun no tame, uchijini suru, fudo no jō mo, saishi no ai mo chūgi no tame ni wa nani ka sen?*" ("When dying fighting for one's master, affec-

needed to-day,—they are more needed than ever. But these virtues can no longer be developed in the manner familiar to readers of Japanese history. The despotic rule which these virtues were utilized to support has gone, and we live under entirely new conditions. In these days of keen competition and comparative equality among the classes, men are talking about their rights, about independence, liberty, and the like, and the old Confucian cry of *chūkō, chūkō*, sounds to most people as out of date. It is not *subjection* and *submission* that need to be preached to-day, but self-reliance, self-respect, and independence; and this educationists especially should fully recognize. . . .

WHAT IS NEEDED.

"It is not necessary to get rid of the old virtues in order to make room for new ones. The view I take is that the old virtues need supplementing in various ways. Loyalty, filial piety, benevolence, chastity, and personal cleanliness are virtues possessed by all nations which pretend to be at all civilized. But these virtues, as I have indicated above, do not exhaust the list of the moral qualities which are indispensable to success in the modern race of nations. Japan has entered the lists as a competitor. Her moral equipment, then, becomes a matter of primary importance. Unfortunately, she is still suffering from the effects of the Tokugawa rule. Under that rule, all forms of original thought on moral or other subjects were suspected and suppressed. It will take some generations to eradicate the evil effects of the social and political influences of Old Japan. These effects are to be traced in the fundamental ideas of the farmer and the mechanic. They account for his lack of enterprise, and for the fatalistic manner in which he clings to his environment, as though it were unalterable. Not less are the effects of these influences manifested in the lives and thoughts of the learned classes of society. With the majority, learning is no more than a pastime. It is pursued with no practical end in view, and is valued more as a polite accomplishment than as an organ of enlightenment and a means of ameliorating the condition of suffering humanity. . . . Every nation has changed its moral code from age to age as its altered circumstances have dictated, and where nations have come into close contact with each other, in not a few instances the moral code of one nation has modified considerably that of another. Japan's entrance into the comity of Western nations, and her determination not to be out-

DAI-BUTSU, THE GREAT IMAGE OF BUDDHA IN TOKIO.

tion for parents and the love of wife and children are thought nothing of compared to loyalty.") This is a creed entirely unsuited to modern social and political conditions, it is pointed out by a writer who signs himself "Foreign Resident" in the *Taiyo*, of Tokio. He continues:

"Men can no longer live by using the sword. In old times, they thought of how best to kill others or die themselves in honorable fashion. But in modern times men are concentrating all their thoughts upon ways of maintaining themselves and those dependent on them. What battles they do wage are peaceful ones connected with electioneering. We do not say that no loyalty, no filial piety, no integrity and honesty, are

done in the trial of national strength now going on, involves the necessity of her recasting her moral code, as she has recast her laws, in order to make it suit the new world."

The Present State of Japanese Religion.

Shintoism, the state religion of Japan, is really a religious cult, rather than a definite religious belief. It is the oldest religious idea in the empire, but many centuries ago Buddhism almost triumphed over it. A. C. Balet, in *La Revue* (Paris), declares that "although Shintoism is ingrained in the national character, it has not succeeded in modifying the Japanese temperament." The doctrine of Confucius alone, he adds, which has nothing of the metaphysical or religious about it—and precisely because of this fact—has left unmistakable traces on the manners of all the cultured classes of Japan. To-day, M. Balet thinks, the Japanese are looking for a new religion, which will perhaps recognize Jesus, Buddha, Confucius, and Mohammed. He writes, further:

"If there be any name full of religious promise which, nevertheless, gives nothing, that is the word 'Shinto.' It signifies the way of the gods, and yet it is without dogmas. Its cult and its ceremonies refer principally to popular fêtes. It deals also with the homage rendered to glorious ancestors, with here and there the grossest of superstitions, and—quite characteristically—not a single precept of religious morality except the following: Obey the impulse of your nature, and, above all, the Emperor. Such is Japanese Shintoism, a *résumé* of naturalism and theocratic respect." The sacred books of Shintoism, the *Kojiki* and the *Nihonki*, insist upon fantastic genealogies of gods and demi-gods,—the alleged ancestors of the dynasty which still reigns in Japan,—and are declared to be valueless from an historic standpoint. The Shintoist cult is very simple. The great and only obligatory rite is the purification of the body and the soul before approaching the *Miya*, or sacred stone. Each of these *Miyas* has its annual fête, and also a certain day of each month upon which this particular god must be propitiated. At present, there are one hundred and ninety thousand eight hundred Shinto temples, of which fifty-eight thousand are supported by the state.

THE RECORD OF BUDDHISM.

Buddhism has reigned in Japan for thirteen hundred years. It has had a glorious past; but it is now, without doubt, in the advanced stages of decay. The chief cause of the triumph of Buddhism in Japan, this writer declares, was the fact that it recognized the aristocratic *régime*,

and was protected by the emperors and by the Shogunate. Buddhism, he points out, did not come as an enemy or as a new militant faith, but as a friend anxious to conciliate the existing religion. Its priests, or *bonzes*, as they are called, accommodated themselves to the facts, and even the methods, of the old religion. The old idols were admitted as avatars of Buddha himself, and the faithful were permitted to go to a Shinto temple at the birth of their children, while they were expected to pray at a Buddhist shrine when they buried their dead. Buddhism, M. Balet continues, as presented to the Japanese, was very different from the original doctrine as formulated in India. Its abstract, metaphysical nature was modified so as to admit of a number of practices which would certainly have astonished Buddha himself had he returned. And yet, although it has apparently been cast off, Japan, says this writer, owes much to Buddhism in her letters and arts, as well as in speculation and practical life. The Buddhist priests, or *bonzes*, really created Japanese poetry, the drama, and architecture. When Buddhism came to Japan, Chinese characters had been used but a short time in the national writing. It was a *bonze* who invented the Japanese characters, and the monasteries soon became the first schools. "All that Japan now possesses of remarkable temples, of original statues, of paintings, of tapestry, and so forth, she owes, beyond a doubt, in their origin, to Buddhism." But, despite its influence, Buddhism could not permanently hold the Japanese mind, because Buddhism is a sort of sad pessimism, and the two dominant characteristics of the Japanese people are "a gay, careless, naïve optimism and a jingoism which is a colossal national vanity."

THE CULT OF CONFUCIUS.

Confucianism has played a great part in Japanese history, but M. Balet does not believe that it will hold its influence much longer. Confucius he characterizes as the philosopher of useful virtues without any ideal, and to Confucius he attributes "egoism, trickery, oppression of women and children, the prostitution of young girls, divorce laws for the benefit of men alone,—all these and many other facts are legitimate deductions from the Confucianist morality." The influence of this philosophy-religion was formerly enormous in Japan, and it has really made more impression than either Shintoism or Buddhism. It has created a profound impression upon the Japanese mind, and may be said to have brought about that stoicism which is best expressed in the Japanese saying, "I ignore life; why should you wish me to be concerned about death?"

THE STATUS AND FUTURE OF CHRISTIANITY.

Christianity, says M. Balet, was introduced into Japan at the end of the sixteenth century by Portuguese and Spanish missionaries. In less than half a century, the disciples of Francis Xavier had converted more than six thousand Japanese of all ranks,—daimios, priests, literary men, and artisans. Twenty years afterward, the number had been doubled. More than half of one of the provinces of the south officially set aside Buddha for Jesus. One of the famous Japanese warriors, Nobunaga, afterward Shogun, and an enemy to the Buddhists, was baptized in the Christian faith. The Protestant churches also made converts, but persecutions began, and the young church was strangled in its cradle. To-day, says M. Balet, neither Protestant nor Catholic churches have the thinking, intelligent members of society, and, of course, the Russian orthodox church is contrary to patriotic Japanese spirit. The modern Japanese version of Christianity, he believes, is the Neo-Christian liberal idea.

THE JAPANESE LOOK FOR A NEW RELIGION.

The Japanese are a very eclectic people, and they show this in their religious views as well as

in the political and economic systems which they have borrowed from the West. In the midst of the almost universal unbelief in the Japan of to-day, this French writer believes that there is a growing conviction, fed by the national pride, that a new religion will be born in Japan.

"These people are dreaming nothing less than that a sage or a demigod will be born in Japan and found the elements of a new religion, appropriate for the twentieth century. just as Buddha, Christ, and Mohammed founded those of centuries gone. Why should this great man, they ask, be born in Japan and not elsewhere? The answer is: Her relations to the other countries of the globe are as the sun is to the planets. She is the center toward which all progress, all discoveries, all beliefs, gravitate. . . . The Japanese are frank to confess that they have no creative genius, but they flatter themselves upon possessing a unique talent for assimilation and digestion under some new form. Is not Japanese art only the art of China, assimilated and transformed into a new creation, so new that it makes one forget the original?" This dream, says M. Balet, "is beautiful, but it is only a dream,—a dream of the preoccupation of national vanity."

HAS THE FIFTEENTH AMENDMENT BEEN JUSTIFIED?

A GENERATION having passed since the adoption of the Fifteenth Amendment to the federal constitution, it would seem that the time has arrived when the wisdom of this important change in the organic law of the land may fairly be the subject of investigation. In the May number of the *Arena* (Boston), Dr. James E. Boyle, of the University of Wisconsin, gives many reasons for the conclusion that the amendment has failed of its purpose and has wrought far more harm than good.

In order that the reader may not be confused as to the true significance of the amendment, Dr. Boyle states in a single sentence the purport of the three amendments that were adopted after the Civil War: The Thirteenth Amendment made the negro a free man; the Fourteenth made him a citizen, with all the rights of a citizen, and aimed to stimulate the States to grant him suffrage; the Fifteenth Amendment guaranteed him that his right to vote should be free from any State interference or discriminations on the ground of "race, color, or previous condition of servitude."

Dr. Boyle summarizes the purposes of the

amendment as follows: (1) to punish the "rebels;" (2) to gain allies for the Republican party; (3) to benefit the general public; (4) to educate the negro in citizenship; and (5) to protect the colored race.

He decides that the amendment failed in all these purposes but the first, and the "rebels," he thinks, had had sufficient punishment, and deserved more considerate and generous treatment.

A STUPENDOUS FAILURE.

So far from gaining allies for the Republican party, the amendment lost that party several Northern States and the "solid South."

"It failed utterly from the public-benefit standpoint, which left out of view the fact that intelligent men are better able to legislate for their own welfare than are ignorant men for them. This point, however, is directly connected with the two following, and falls to the ground with them.

"It failed, worse than failed, to educate the negro in good citizenship. He found himself enfranchised, with the right to barter and sell

his vote, or hold an office which he could not fill. He immediately fell into the hands of professional politicians, and in this school of rottenness and corruption he became a plastic tool with marvelous facility. If *this* was the education he needed, God save the mark! But, despite his enfranchisement, bulwarked by the mighty force of the federal constitution, he does *not* vote—south of Delaware—or make himself an important political factor.

ALIENATION OF THE NEGRO'S BEST FRIENDS.

"That the colored race might be protected was the fifth purpose noted above. Here was the saddest, most stupendous, failure of all, and which years of time will not suffice to remedy. It was imagined that the appointment of an ignorant negro justice would protect the negroes in his vicinage. But the appointment of every

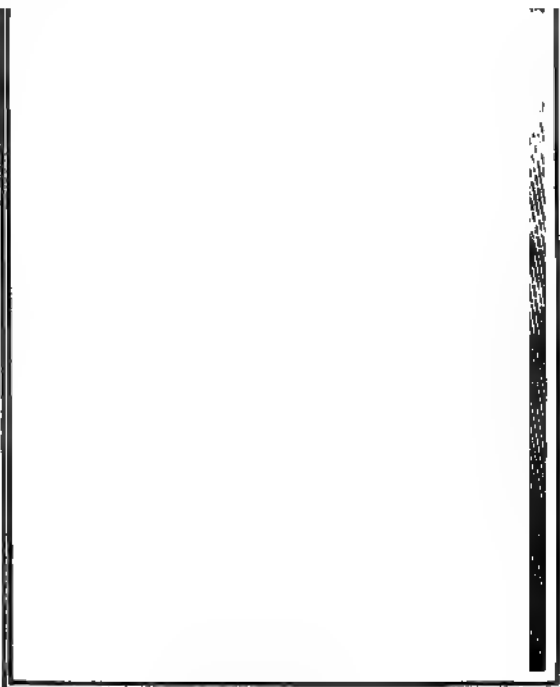
incompetent negro fanned the prejudice of the people, already overwrought in sectional feeling. It took from the negro his only true friend, the one competent to understand, advise, and help him,—his master,—and made him his enemy. The disfranchised master turned, with the instinct of self-preservation, against both the intruding carpet-bagger and his tool—the misguided negro. The negro was readily led to believe his liberators from the North were blessed saviors to him, and that his former master would reënslave him if he could. Thus, race prejudice was fostered, and the South was given her present race problem.

"Since the negro lost both ballot and friends throughout the South, we must pronounce this experiment in political science an unqualified failure. The right to the ballot is the capacity for the ballot."

COUNT TOLSTOY ON NON-RESISTANCE AND THE NEGRO QUESTION.

TOLSTOY has written a preface for a new biography of William Lloyd Garrison, which is about to be published (in English) by the Russian house of Tchertkoff. This preface is reproduced as an article in *La Revue*. Tolstoy admires Garrison as one of the few men in Western civilization who have had the high-mindedness and courage to advocate and carry out his favorite principle of non-resistance. Considering Garrison's ability and the success of the anti-slavery movement in the United States, the Russian reformer is surprised that the non-resistance idea has made such comparatively little progress in this country. Garrison, says Tolstoy, understood what no other of the advanced anti-slavery advocates comprehended,—that the one great count against slavery was that it was a negation of the right of liberty of certain men in no matter what condition they were. Garrison understood that "negro slavery was simply one phase of general violence. He proclaimed the general principle which no one could deny: No man, under any pretext whatsoever, has the right to dominate; that is to say, to employ violence against his kind. Garrison not only insisted on the right of the slaves to be free, but he particularly denied the right of any individual, or of society itself, to force any man by violent means to do its will. In the struggle against slavery, he [Garrison] enunciated the principle of the struggle against all the evil of the world."

To-day, continues Count Tolstoy, the same



A RECENT PORTRAIT OF COUNT TOLSTOY.

question, but in another form, presents itself before the American people. Formerly, he says, "the question was this: how to deliver the ne-

groes from the violence of the slave-owners. To-day, it is this: how to deliver the negroes from the violence of all the whites, and the whites from the violence of all the blacks. And the solution of this question in its new form will be found, no doubt, not in the lynching of the negroes, not in the artificial measures which American politicians will take, but only by the application in the national life of the very same principle which Garrison proclaimed forty years ago."

In this belief, Count Tolstoy says he is supported by the views of a number of prominent Americans, among whom he mentions Mr. W. J.

Bryan, whom he characterizes as "extraordinarily intelligent and advanced." The non-resistance principle, he says, signifies only "that natural relations between intelligent beings should consist, not in violence, which would admit that inferior organisms had no right, but in reasonable persuasion and in the admission that all men who desire to be useful to humanity should aspire to replace violence by the conviction of reason." William Lloyd Garrison, the Russian writer concludes, "will ever remain one of the greatest actors and grandest workers in real human progress."

HISTORY-TEACHING IN THE SOUTH.

THAT teachers of history in the South encounter difficulties not common to the whole country may well be believed, but some of those set forth by Prof. William E. Dodd, of Randolph-Macon College, in the *South Atlantic Quarterly* for April are unexpectedly serious. The ignorance of students entering college is not so surprising, since that phenomenon is not unknown at the North; but it does somewhat stagger our faith in popular education to be told that half the students of a high-grade college class in Virginia did not know who John Marshall was, or when he lived!

THE INTOLERANCE OF PUBLIC OPINION.

Another great difficulty mentioned by this Southern professor of history (and this is not easily understood by Northerners) is the attitude of public opinion.

"In the South, and particularly in the older section of it, public opinion is so thoroughly fixed that many subjects which come every day into the mind of the historian may not with safety even so much as be discussed. As already intimated, to suggest that the revolt from the Union in 1860 was not justified, was not led by the most lofty-minded of statesmen, is to invite, not only criticism, but an enforced resignation. According to Southern public opinion, the whole race question is finally settled never to be opened again, and in matters further removed from the field of politics, such as literature and art, it is exceedingly dangerous to give voice to adverse criticism of the South's attainments in the past or of her present status. Now, intellectual honesty and the fearless expression of what is believed to be truth are such cardinal virtues of the true teacher of history that they need not even be discussed here. On the other hand, every Southern man who knows the history of

the country, and who loves the people from whom he has sprung, desires to labor among them, and to labor in such a way as to bring lasting good to his section; and thus serving his section, serve also the whole American nation. What is to be done under such circumstances? To speak out boldly means, in many instances, to destroy one's power of usefulness; to remain silent is out of the question for the strong and honest man; and to follow the smooth *via media* means failure to influence anybody or anything."

THE DEMAND FOR "PATRIOTIC" HISTORY

It seems that the Confederate "camps" are as active in the South as the Grand Army of the Republic in the North in censoring textbooks. These organizations "fear that what they call 'false history' may be smuggled in from the North, and have history committees, with representatives in every Congressional district, whose business is to keep watch and put out of the schools any and all books which do not come up to their standard of local patriotism. A copy of the instructions to one of these committees reads as follows: 'To report any book or books that fail to fasten in the minds of our children a becoming pride in the deeds of their fathers and that fail to give a truthful recital of the principles for which the Confederate soldier fought.' That sounds very well, and no historian could possibly take exception to it; but I have seen the very best books we have on American history ruled out of the South by these committees, for no board of education can live if it fail to heed the warning of the Confederate veterans; and as a rule, the very poorest books to be found anywhere are the favored ones on our *index expurgatorius*. The Confederate veteran works almost as great havoc in the field of history, though he unquestionably

does some good, as does the Union veteran in the neighborhood of the United States Treasury. Time alone can work a cure in this respect."

THE NEED OF ENDOWMENTS.

Professor Dodd also calls attention to the lack of opportunity in the South for first-hand investigation, stating that there is only one first-rate library of reference between Washington and New Orleans. The State and county authorities are negligent in preserving their own records, but something in that line is now being done in Alabama and Mississippi, and the documents of Virginia history are now for the first time being put in order.

"To conclude, our forces are weak, and the prospect of their being strengthened is none too

bright; our schools are poor, and the chances of reform are not many; public opinion is intolerant, and we buy only about one book in a hundred of the total output.

"But even under these circumstances there are manifold efforts being made. In Virginia, at two strategic points, at least, there are earnest workers, and their efforts are already telling; in North Carolina, there is aggressive work, and one teacher and writer of history who devotes his whole time to his single field. What the supreme need is now is ample endowment at important points and reinforcement of the few devoted workers already in the harness,—endowments without any kind of 'strings' to them, and investigators who know no party and no dogma, and who seek only the truth and publish it."

THE INDUSTRIAL SOUTH.

IF any part of the United States has grounds for satisfaction with the returns of the last census, it is the South. The peculiar economic and social conditions that obtain in the Southern States should not be permitted to obscure the actual growth and progress that are working a mighty transformation in the whole region below Mason and Dixon's line. In the *Sewanee Review* (Sewanee, Tenn.), Mr. Frank T. Carlton reviews the changes of the last decade in a group of five Southern States,—South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana. Under the head of "Manufactures," this writer says:

"The census returns indicate a bright future, industrially, for this group of States. The South has great undeveloped resources in cotton, coal, iron, timber, and water power. The lack of skilled workmen and of capital is a severe handicap at the present time. Raw material, coal, and water power are found in close proximity, allowing a minimum of transportation of the materials needed in manufacturing. Not only should the South become a greater producer, but she should also become a greater consumer. Her workmen must be given social and educational advantages which will raise their standard of living. Agricultural products can be raised in abundance to satisfy the needs of a large industrial population. Conditions are favorable to a greater increase in manufacturing in the present decade than during the last.

INCREASE IN MANUFACTURES.

"During the period 1890–1900, the capital invested in the five States in manufactures has in-

creased from \$181,971,417 to \$376,407,915, or it has increased 106 per cent. This increase is partly due to a more careful enumeration in 1900 than in 1890. During the same period, the number of separate establishments increased from 13,955 to 25,990, an increase of 86.2 per cent.

"Each State has its own peculiar development. South Carolina is characterized by a remarkable growth in the manufacture of cotton goods. Cotton is brought to the mills of this State from several surrounding States. Twenty-four per cent. of the total power employed in this State is water power. In Georgia, the principal product of manufacture is cotton goods; but the lumber and timber interests are extensive. In Alabama, the iron and steel industry is the most important, and the rapid increase in the population of Birmingham is due to this industry. Deposits of iron ore, coal, limestone, and dolomite are found in close proximity in the neighborhood of Birmingham. The industrial prospects of Mississippi are the least promising of the group. This State has few natural advantages, lumber and timber being the chief products. In Louisiana, sugar-refining and lumbering have shown great increases during the last decade."

THE CONDITION OF THE WAGE-EARNERS.

The most alarming feature in the Southern industrial situation at the present time is the rapid increase in the number of children employed in the mills. In the South, 8.2 per cent. of the total number of wage-earners are children under sixteen years of age; in the United States as a whole, about 4.8 per cent. Apropos of this fact, Mr. Carlton says:

"There are practically no laws regarding the employment of women and children in the South, and very few labor laws of any sort. Louisiana prohibits the employment in factories of girls under fourteen and of boys under twelve years of age. Alabama prohibits the employment of women and of children under ten in mines. South Carolina has recently enacted legislation bettering the condition of child labor. This lack of labor legislation is one of the greatest menaces to the progress and prosperity of the South. The coming generation of workers will have little opportunity to receive the benefits of schooling and of real home life. Such conditions will tend to degrade permanently the character of the workmen as a class and to lower their standard of living. The South needs more skilled workers; she has an abundance of unskilled labor. In order to secure these, labor laws similar to those in force in other States should be enacted and enforced, particularly those which relate to the employment of women and children. The progress of the South, as of

any other section, depends upon the progress and prosperity of all the people, workers and employers alike. As the negroes are as yet not employed to any great extent in manufacturing industries, it seems likely that their children will be able to go to school while the children of the white factory employees are toiling in the factories, and therefore will receive a better education than the children of white workingmen. Such a condition can only accentuate the trouble and friction arising from the close and continual contact of the two dissimilar races living side by side.

"Labor is not well organized in the South. Very little organization exists among the negroes. In the year 1900, there were sixty-three strikes in the States under consideration, or about 3.5 per cent. of the total number for the entire United States. Labor unions are undoubtedly held in check by the fear that employers will 'negroize' their plants if the unions become aggressive. Agricultural laborers, particularly in the cotton fields, are largely negroes."

AGRICULTURAL WORK IN THE PHILIPPINES.

THOSE who have not given special attention to the matter have a very imperfect idea of what has been done in our island possessions in the way of introducing American methods for the promotion of agriculture. In Hawaii and Porto Rico, experiment stations have been established under government support, while in the Philippine Islands a bureau of agriculture has been in operation for about two years. The activity of the bureau in organizing its work of propaganda and investigation, as indicated by Professor Lamson-Scribner's second report, is briefly summarized in the May number of the *Popular Science Monthly*. This activity has been mainly along the lines of establishing experiment stations and farms, studying the conditions surrounding the principal agricultural industries, the introduction of farm machinery and improved methods of culture, and the testing and distribution of introduced plants and seed.

Seven experiment stations and farms have been established for special branches of agriculture or in typical sections of the country. These include a rice farm, a live-stock farm, a sugar station, a farm for cocoanut and Manila-hemp culture, a testing station near Manila, and two other stations for general work in typical localities. The coffee industry was formerly an extensive one in Batangas province, but, owing to the ravages of leaf-blight and borers, it has been

practically abandoned. The Government has started a plantation with imported hybrids, and it is hoped to secure resistance to disease and insect injuries by vigorous growing varieties and thorough cultivation.

IMPROVEMENTS IN RICE, COCOANUT, AND HEMP CULTURE.

Curiously enough, although rice is the staple article for the Filipinos, not enough of it is produced for home consumption. Special effort is therefore being made to promote the rice industry. Approved American methods are being followed on the rice farms, and the crop of last year was seeded, cut, and thrashed out with the latest machinery. This was a revelation to the natives, who have always used the primitive methods of growing and handling rice, and they were willing to pay a good toll for having their rice thrashed out by machinery, in preference to hand-thrashing. In fact, it is stated that the natives have taken readily to the modern agricultural implements and machinery introduced by the bureau.

On the hemp and cocoanut farm, the problems of managing the plantations and the preparing of copra, a staple article of export, are being taken up. It is believed that a more careful selection of the species of hemp and better methods of culture would greatly increase the

yield of merchantable fiber. Another thing greatly needed in the development of this important industry is the perfection of a machine for stripping and cleaning the hemp fiber.

THE PROBLEM OF LIVE STOCK.

For the stock farm, improved stock of different kinds has been imported with a view to the general improvement of the live stock in the islands, most of which is of an inferior quality,

while disease has carried off so many of the working animals as to cripple very seriously the native farming. The forage problem is also an acute one, under present conditions, since the forage consists entirely of grass cut fresh every day and sold to supply the need from day to day. New forage plants have been tested by the bureau, but nowhere in the Philippines has any attempt been made to produce hay, although this is supposed to be practicable.

THE PULITZER COLLEGE OF JOURNALISM.

SO many criticisms have been passed on the projected College of Journalism, founded by Mr. Joseph Pulitzer at Columbia University, that the founder himself has seen fit to present, in the May number of the *North American Review*, a forty-page review of these criticisms, together

with sundry reflections upon the power and progress of the press and a condensed statement of what might be accomplished by specialized education to improve the character and work of journalists.

MORAL COURAGE IN JOURNALISM.

Admitting that the "news instinct," so called, must be born, Mr. Pulitzer opines that "if this instinct as born were turned loose in any newspaper office in New York without the control of sound judgment bred by considerable experience and training the results would be much more pleasing to the lawyers than to the editors." One of the chief difficulties in journalism now, in his opinion, is "to keep the news instinct from running rampant over the restraints of accuracy and conscience." At this point, much to the surprise, we imagine, of all rigid censors of the "yellow journalism," Mr. Pulitzer briefly discusses the questions "Can Conscience Be Developed?" and "Can Moral Courage Be Taught?" He raises the further question whether the conscience may not be considered more an acquired and inherited or inherent quality. "Is there not some reason to believe that conscience is largely a question of climate and geography?" Mr. Pulitzer admits that moral courage is one of the hardest things in the world to teach, but feels encouraged by the reflection that physical courage is taught. Thus, the student who enters West Point or Annapolis, though he be anything but a hero at the start, is so "drilled, hammered, and braced in the direction of courage" that by the time of graduation it is morally certain that when he takes his men under fire for the first time he will not flinch. Mr. Pulitzer trusts that in the same way the soul may be taught to cling to its conviction against temptation, prejudice, obloquy, and persecution.

LEARNING JOURNALISM "IN THE OFFICE."

All practical newspaper men will appreciate the force of Mr. Pulitzer's reply to the argu-



MR. JOSEPH PULITZER.

of journalism for many years. Twelve years ago, he submitted the idea to President Low, of Columbia, who declined it. Since that time, he has continued to perfect and organize the scheme, and now it is accepted. He admits that the difficulties are many; but in weighing them impartially, he is more firmly convinced than ever of the ultimate success of the idea. "Before the century closes, schools of journalism will be generally accepted as a feature of general education, like schools of law or medicine." To the objection that a newspaper man must depend solely upon natural aptitude, or, in the common phrase, "that he must be born, not made," Mr. Pulitzer replies that the only position that occurs to him which a man in our republic can successfully fill by the simple fact of birth is that of an idiot. For all other positions, a man demands and receives training, either at home, in schools, by master-craftsmen, or through bitter experience. This last, he says, is the process by which pro-

ment that journalism must be learned "in the office."

"What is the actual practice of the office? It is not intentional, but only incidental, training; it is not apprenticeship,—it is work, in which every participant is supposed to know his business. Nobody in a newspaper office has the time or the inclination to teach a raw reporter the things he ought to know before taking up even the humblest work of the journalist. That is not what editors are doing. One of the learned critics remarks that Greeley took young Raymond in hand and hammered him into a great editor. True. But was it not an expensive process, as well as an unusual one—the most distinguished newspaper-maker of his time turning himself into a college of journalism for the benefit of a single pupil? Suppose a man of half Greeley's capacity, set free from the exhausting labors and the harassing perplexities of creating a newspaper every day—relieved from the necessity of correcting the blunders of subordinates, of watching to prevent the perpetration of more blunders, and able to concentrate his whole heart and soul upon training his pupils—might he not be able to turn out, not one Raymond, but forty?

"Incidentally, I venture to mention that in my own experience as a newspaper reporter and editor I never had one single lesson from anybody.

"The 'shop' idea is the one that used to prevail in the law and in medicine. Legal studies began by copying bills of costs for the country lawyer; medical training by sweeping out a doctor's office. Now it is recognized that better results are obtained by starting with a systematic equipment in a professional school. The lawyer learns nothing at college except the theory of the law, its principles, and some precedents. When he receives his diploma, he is quite unprepared to practise. Nor does the doctor learn to practise at the medical school. He learns only principles, theories, rules, the experience of others—the foundation of his profession. After leaving college, he must work in the hospitals to acquire the art of practically applying his knowledge.

"In journalism at present, the newspaper offices are the hospitals, but the students come to them knowing nothing of principles or theories. The newspaper hospital is extremely accommodating. It furnishes the patients for its young men to practise on, puts dissecting-knives into the hands of beginners who do not know an artery from a vermiform appendix, and pays them for the blunders by which they gradually teach themselves their profession."

THE DEMAND FOR SPECIALIZATION.

To the objection that even if a college education be desirable, everything needed is already provided in the existing colleges, so that no special department is required, Mr. Pulitzer replies:

"This criticism appears to have some force. It is possible that it may be advanced with sincerity by intelligent newspaper men who know nothing of colleges, or by intelligent college men who know nothing of newspapers. But it is superficial. It is true that many of the subjects needed for the general education of a journalist are already covered in college. But they are too much covered. The student of journalism may find one course in a law school, another in a graduate school of political science, another, at the same hour, in an undergraduate class at college, and another in a department of literature. So in general university courses we may find by-products that would meet the needs of the journalist. Why not divert, deflect, extract, concentrate, specialize, them for the journalist as a specialist?

"The spirit of specialization is everywhere. The lawyer is a real-estate lawyer, or a criminal lawyer, or a corporation lawyer, or possibly a criminal-corporation lawyer. Formerly, the family physician treated every ailment; now there are specialists for the eye, the ear, the throat, the teeth; for men, for women, for children; even for imaginary diseases; for every possible variety of practice. And there is specialization in the newspaper offices themselves. The editor of a New York paper confined to the editorial page is as much surprised as the reader when in the morning he reads the news columns. The news editor does not know what editorials there will be; the musical critic could not write of sporting events; the man with the priceless sense of humor could not record and interpret the movements of the stock market. The men in all these fields are specialists. The object of the College of Journalism will be to dig through this general scheme intended to cover every possible career or work in life, every profession, to select and concentrate only upon the things which the journalist wants, and not to waste time on things that he does not want."

Mr. Pulitzer's ideas are very clearly defined as to certain subjects that should *not* be taught in a school of journalism. For example, he would not teach typesetting; he would not explain the methods of business management, nor "reproduce, with trivial versions, the course of a commercial college." This, he says, is no university work, and needs no endowment. In this respect he differs from the proposal of

President Eliot to include instruction in the business administration of a newspaper.

Mr. Pulitzer concludes his paper with a discussion of the matters that should be taught in the new College of Journalism, under the heads of style, law, ethics, literature, truth and accuracy, history, sociology, economics, statistics,

modern languages, physical science, the study of newspapers, the power of ideas, and the principles and methods of journalism.

It is impossible to summarize Mr. Pulitzer's points in this place, but the reader will find his entire article, as published in the *North American*, extremely suggestive and instructive.

ITALY AND AUSTRIA IN THE BALKAN PENINSULA.

AN anonymous writer in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome) has been discussing the political position of eastern Europe under the heading "Italy and Austria on the Balkan Chessboard." He takes his text from an official utterance in the Austrian *Fremdenblatt* (Vienna) to the effect that however the war between Russia and Japan may turn out, Russia will always be strong enough to maintain her traditional prestige in the Balkan Peninsula; that, on the other hand, the loyalty of Austria-Hungary is such that it is impossible for her ever to take advantage of any position in which her old neighbor and ally may find herself to encroach upon their contiguous neutral territories. The writer is willing to take the word of the Viennese minister as to the peaceable intentions of Austria, backed as this is by the pronouncements of Menini, the vicar-apostolic at Sofia, an Italian by birth and sympathies. "Nevertheless," he adds, "certain circumstances have come to light which justify a feeling of uneasiness regarding Italian interests in Albania in case Russia should meet with a *débâcle* in the far East and thus leave Austria a free hand in the Balkans." He feels that something more explicit than the diplomatic declaration of the *Fremdenblatt* is necessary to reassure Italy in her control of the Adriatic.

"The other European powers should be called as witnesses to a definite compact, in which Austria agrees not to occupy Albania, nor to occupy any new point on the coast of the Adriatic." Albania "is a very vague geographical term; the Albanians are not a politically organized race; they live in groups, like islanders on a sea, at various parts of the peninsula. The compact should, therefore, contain a plain geographical delimitation. On this point the Treaty of Berlin was a failure; it secured the predominance of France on the Mediterranean, of Austria on the Adriatic. The danger is the possible annexation by Austria of the Sanjak of Novi-Bazar, over which her garrisons now extend, in accordance with the provisions of the Berlin treaty. . . . All the forces of Italian diplomacy should be strained to prevent an eventuality

which would not only of itself entail grave consequences to the peace of the Balkan Peninsula, but would disturb the present relations between Italy and Austria and have a serious effect upon the position of the government at present in power at Rome."

The contemplation of this possible annexation brings the writer to the real gist of his article, which is as palpably inspired by an Italian minister as that already quoted from the *Fremdenblatt* was by the Austrian chancellor.

"It should be understood that public opinion in Italy at the present moment sympathizes with Russia in her struggle in the far East, and no

ITALIAN IRREDENTISM.

AUSTRIAN EMPEROR: "What, my little fellow, are we, then, no longer allies?"—From *La Silhouette* (Paris).

idea is entertained of a possible participation of Italy in a quadruple alliance with England, the United States, and Japan,—an alliance which would go far to place Italy in the same position as Piedmont was among the allies of the Crimean War. It is proper, therefore, for Italians to turn a deaf ear to all enthusiastic utterances in favor of the Japanese, such as would cause an unfavorable impression in Russia and would put obstacles in the way of ever coming to a clear and friendly understanding with Austria."

He goes on to explain this by saying:

"Without taking too literally the profession of faith in Russia's intentions made by the Austrian chancellor in the *Fremdenblatt*, it is

quite certain that the situation of things in the Balkan Peninsula must ever depend upon the agreement between Austria and Russia. . . . On the other hand, as the proverb says, 'the occasion makes the thief,'—an axiom as true with regard to governments as to individuals,—and the political course of Italy should be so taken in the interests of peace, and out of consideration for the Balkan populations, as to avoid all such complications with Austria as may give her any cause or pretext for the annexation of the Sanjak of Novi-Bazar. And this principle should especially inspire Italian diplomatic dealings with the Albanians, the Bulgarians, and the Turkish Government."

RUSSIA AND THE PANAMA CANAL.

IN an address in Paris, on March 24, M. Philippe Bunau-Varilla informed a number of French statesmen and others interested in the transfer of the Panama Canal title to the United States that in 1894 he had held negotiations with the Russian minister of finance, Witte, with a view to Russia's completing the Panama Canal, or at least in helping France to do so. The *Nouvelle Revue* (Paris) prints M. Bunau-Varilla's address, under the title "The Question of Panama." The idea, he says, of asking aid from Russia came to him in the summer of 1894.

"I saw that Russia was beginning to construct the Trans-Siberian Railroad, and I formed the notion that the Panama Canal was, after all, nothing more than the complement of the Siberian road, just as the Suez Canal is the complement of the North American transcontinental lines. The Panama Canal is the last link in the route that passes through the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, and is joined by the iron band across the European-Asiatic continent, as the Suez Canal is the last section of the navigation route of the earth that passes through the oceans and of the American transcontinental routes.

"This geographical conception led me to buy a ticket for Russia, to journey to St. Petersburg, and to ask M. Witte whether, considering the situation which had arisen in France, there was not an opportunity for the Russian Empire to manifest, in a definite and tangible form, its affection for France by aiding her to 'save the ship' in danger,—to float, again, the work at Panama.

"M. Witte said to me, 'What does the French Government think about it?' He said this to me under circumstances that permitted me to believe he was expressing, not merely his own

ideas, but those of the Czar Alexander as well. 'What does the French Government think about it? If it agrees with you, without engaging the Czar's promise I can tell you that any solution of a nature to help French interests in this mat-

M. BUNAU-VARILLA.

(Who tried to interest Russia in the Panama Canal in 1894.)

ter would be received in the most favorable manner by his majesty's government."

M. Bunau-Varilla returned to France and called on M. Casimir-Périer, who was then acting as president of the council and minister of foreign affairs, and then on M. Burdeau, the latter returning with him to Paris. One evening they both called on the minister of finance, and, continues M. Bunau-Varilla, M. Burdeau

said to him: "I have examined the question with M. Casimir-Périer. He will summon you in a few days in order to tell you that the French Government is favorable to joint action with Russia, and that, consequently, there is in your idea a foundation for reconstructing the Panama enterprise. To-day, I am speaking to you as your friend. In a few days you will know it officially."

The results were different from what had been anticipated. M. Bunau-Varilla continues:

"The fate of politics made the ministry fall before M. Casimir-Périer summoned him to give the answer; and, by a singular accumulation of fatalities, in about a year all the men who had in different ways been in contact or association with the idea had disappeared from the world's stage. The Czar Alexander was dead, M. Carnot was dead, M. Casimir-Périer

had given up politics after resigning the functions of president of the republic, under circumstances that prevented his taking further action, and it seemed that all who had been inclined to give help to Panama were paralyzed forever."

M. Bunau-Varilla recounts his campaign to arouse interest in the United States, and says many warm words of praise about the late Senator Hanna, to whom, he insists, more than to any other one person, is due the final choice by the American Government of the route of the Panama Canal. If it had not been, he says, for "the splendid efforts made by Senator Hanna, if the terrible eruption of Mont Pelée had not occurred in such a way as to attract unfavorable attention to the volcanic character of the Nicaragua country, the latter would have been definitely chosen and Panama lost forever."

THE "DECADENCE" OF FRANCE AGAIN.

IN the judgment of a number of thinkers and writers whose opinions are worth knowing, there is absolutely no evidence whatsoever that the French people are decadent. Last month, we quoted the reply of Professor Dubedout, of the University of Chicago, to the charge. An interesting and significant symposium of views is now being published in *L'Européen* (Paris). M. Louis Dumur, the editor of this international weekly, recently put the question "Is France in its Decadence?" to a number of celebrities. The great majority of replies, particularly from non-Frenchmen, are in the negative. Carmen Sylva, the famous author-Queen of Roumania, replies as follows:

"Decadent France' has produced Leconte de Lisle, Ernest Renan, Sully-Prudhomme, François Coppée, Anatole France, Melchior de Vogüé, Edmond Rostand, Léon Diérx, Heredia, Théophile Gautier, Flaubert, Pierre Loti, Richepin, Jean Aicard, Edmond Harancourt, Ephraïm Michel, Louis Bouilhet, Verlaine, Baudelaire, César Franck, Saint-Saëns, Fauré, Léon Moreau, etc., and, further, the sages, the painters, the sculptors, whom we all know. I did not mention Rodenbach and Maeterlinck because they were not born in France. Nevertheless, they write French. Accordingly, it is well if the decadent sky still shows such stars."

Björnsterne Björnson, the Scandinavian novelist and dramatist, does not understand how any one can ask such a question about a people so "brimful of life" as the French. The boulevards and their debauchees, he reminds us, are

not French. Joseph Reinach, ex-member of the French Parliament and author of "The History of the Dreyfus Affair," sees proofs of inexhaustible vitality and wisdom in a nation which revived so quickly and thoroughly after the terrible war of 1870. "It has founded the republic, it has made public instruction accessible to all classes, and it has given a magnificent start to all works of charity and solidarity, as well as to all public labors. It has fully paid the debt of its colonies. It has rendered inefficient the factions of dictatorship, of anarchy, and of reaction. It has again taken its rank in the European concert. It has made the Dreyfus affair more a moral reform than a political one."

THE JUDGMENT OF MAX NORDAU.

Max Nordau, the famous writer on subjects of national and individual degeneracy, declares the question itself to be "blasphemous." His opinion is worth quoting.

"There are in France social groups,—or classes, if you please,—which obviously are decadent, and that is good for your country; but France herself is moving rapidly upward, and witnesses, at present, one of the most brilliant eras of her history.

"Economically, France enjoys a marvelous prosperity. She has overcome by her energy and tenacity the terrible danger of phylloxera, a danger which would have utterly ruined, and perhaps unretrievably, any other country; she has understood how to adapt herself to a protec-

tionism which could have strangled her ; she has reconciled by her good taste the patronage which she was about to lose in her market ; she has increased, in a few years, the average production of wheat. . . .

"Politically, she has regained the prestige of her most glorious days. If one no longer fears her because she is known to be peaceful, one respects her, one admires her and solicits her favor. Russia is happy to have her as an ally. Italy and England seek her friendship. Spain is approaching her. The United States treats her as a friend of first rate. Her position in the world is enviable indeed.

"As to territorial expanse, her boundaries are wider and richer than during the time of Napoleon at the height of his power. Her flag flies over the most beautiful part of Asia. Her African empire, scarcely separated from the metropolis, cannot be compared in importance and accessibility to the Asiatic possessions of Russia.

"Morally and intellectually, she takes first rank among the various peoples. Her science, her art, her literature, are superior to those of most of her rivals, and she does not rank inferior to any one of them. She enjoys the great fortune once more to march in the van of mankind waging a struggle against obscurantism and reaction, and she seems to be bent, through an enormous effort of which any other nation would at present be incapable, on the completion of the work of the encyclopædists and of the great Revolution.

"France, a sovereign and noble nation and a powerful democracy, works for the emancipation of human thought and for the legal organization of a national solidarity. She is to-day what other peoples will be to-morrow, or much later,—very much later.

"The sole black point on her horizon might be the reduction of the increase of her birth-rate, but even here she seems to be ahead of the times. This sociological phenomenon accompanies, throughout, the progress of civilization, and France should perhaps here also lead other nations. When generalized, the phenomenon ceases to be a disturbing factor. It simply seems to be the expression of the fact that in consequence of the nation's intellectual development reason and foresight extend their influence upon a domain where in a lower stage of civilization blind instinct alone holds sway."

The supremacy of France, says Émile Verhaeren, a famous Belgian poet, is centered in her art. "There she reigns in all her greatness, and all other nations submit to her leadership."

Charles Gide, the well-known French econo-

mist, professor at the University of Paris, thinks that only foreigners should express opinions on this subject. Nevertheless, he continues, "if we limit ourselves to statements of fact, we have the right, according to statistics, to affirm that no part of France is on the path of retrogression. The curve of her evolution remains ascending."

A RUSSIAN OPINION.

The celebrated Russian writer on psychology and sociology, J. Noviców, of Odessa, declares that one can speak of the decadence of France "only by a perversity of the human mind that would attach all the most complex social phenomena to one single cause." In agriculture, industry, science, the arts, and belles-lettres, he reminds us, France is not inferior to any of her rivals. Her only inferiority manifests itself in war. But this "contradicts the most obvious facts." He explains :

"France, during the last two centuries, has come out vanquished from her great campaigns against her neighbors. The fight of the eighteenth century against England ended in defeat, and cost her India and Canada. The fight against the European coalition during the Revolution and the Empire ended in another defeat, and cost her, not alone all the acquisitions of the time of the Directory and of Napoleon, but also a piece of territory which had belonged to her kings. The fight against Germany was ended by the treaty of Frankfort, and involved the loss of Alsace-Lorraine. One is therefore justified in saying definitively that France has shown herself inferior in these struggles, but, on the other hand, it would be ridiculous to use such an expression with regard to one of the most warlike nations of the entire world, which counts hundreds of most decisive victories, of which we will only mention a few,—Rivoli, Marengo, Hohenlinden, Ulm, Austerlitz, Jena, Eylau, Friedland, Wagram, Borodino, l'Alma, Inkerman, Magenta, and Solferino. However it may be, France of to-day has acquiesced in a defeat, and for this reason alone she is said to be in decadence.

"It is true, however, that one should appreciate still another reason,—her feeble birth-rate,—but this phenomenon appears also in the race that is generally proclaimed as the most flourishing one, the Anglo-Saxons of the United States : consequently, if the Americans should *not* be regarded as degenerating on account of their feeble birth-rate, why should the French for the same reason ? There is a lack of logical consistency which proves that we have to deal with a preconceived notion, and it leads us back again

to the military defeat. Indeed, if the French had not been vanquished on the battlefields, their reduced birth-rate would be considered no more as an evidence of decadence with them than with the Americans. Otherwise, the small birth-rate is a phenomenon which seems to make its appearance in proper season in all civilized countries, and France is presumably in this respect only in advance of other nations. I have said that in the midst of her defeats France has gained the most dashing victories; but if her inferiority in the art of war should be irreparable

and definite, would that prove her decadence? By no means! War is one of those numerous forms of activity which develop a nation. It is a profound error to consider it as a *résumé* of the entire national life. France has, as the first one, rid herself of her medieval swaddling-clothes. Both in political institutions and as to religious ideas, France marches at the head of the nations, and in numerous respects by far surpasses them. To speak of her decadence under these conditions is only evidence of an astonishing frivolity or a still more astonishing hypocrisy."

CHINESE LABOR IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN MINES.

THE storm of protest aroused in the British reviews by the proposition to introduce Chinese coolie labor into the mines of the Rand has not yet subsided.

Mr. John Burns, M.P., contributes to the *Independent Review* a stirring sermon against the iniquities of the Chinese labor ordinance. "Slavery in South Africa" is the title of Mr. Burns' paper, and he sums the matter up as follows:

"It is no answer to urge, in defense of this crowning infamy, the plea of 'regrettable necessity.' This is the coward's plea, the criminal's defense, the wanton's excuse, the statesman's shame, the prelate's sin. This evasion of human rights and national duty, apart from perversion of our noblest tradition, is a denial of our responsibility to inferior races, whom we can only claim to govern because, in so ruling, we substitute for the slavery of savages the free consent of the kindly governed.

"Are we as a nation to incur the greater moral, ethical, social, and political damage to the fabric of the commonwealth in order that two British colonies shall be dominated by Jews, peopled by Asiatics, and be sustained by forced labor in convict compounds, tempered by a weekly pass to brothels and gambling-saloons, and a ticket-of-leave for forty-eight hours to an opium den?"

Mr. Burns shows by figures that it is perfectly possible to employ white labor in the mines. He condemns fiercely the treatment allotted to the Kaffirs at Kimberley, and says that "if the Chinese coolie has the same occupational mortality and risk of fatal disease and accidental death as the Kaffir, it will mean that, of every 1,000, only 750 to 800 will return to China at the end of three years; at the end of five, 550 to 650 per 1,000."

The death-rate at the mines has been from 70 to 106 per 1,000, whereas among blacks working on Boer farms it is only from 8 to 15 per 1,000.

With decent treatment and wages of from \$12.50 to \$15 per month, one hundred and fifty thousand blacks could be depended on with increased regularity.

The Aim of the Randlords.

An unsigned article in the *Westminster Review* defines the aims of the mine-owners as follows:

"The truth is, the prospect of the additional two and one-half millions of dividends each year made the mouths of the Rand magnates water, and they were willing to do anything—or anybody—in order to obtain it. Their first objective was 'to secure a full, cheap, regular, submissive supply of Kaffir and white labor.' 'Asiatic labor' was but an afterthought. Kimberley, with its huge octopus-like monopoly and its 'compound' slavery system, was the industrial ideal of these 'patriots' with the outlandish patronymics; and they were minded to improve, if possible, even on that system. 'Good government,' in the eyes of these gentlemen, meant the abolition of the Transvaal mining laws, the most liberal in the world. Then, as the De Beers Consolidated Mines swallowed up and absorbed all interests in Kimberley, so the Consolidated Gold Fields Company would swallow up all interests in the Rand, and be absolutely master of the situation."

The Black Peril.

According to Mr. Roderick Jones, who writes in the *Nineteenth Century*, South Africa's real peril is not yellow, but black. Mr. Jones complains that in Cape Colony both parties encourage and flatter the black vote, and that that vote will soon threaten seriously the supremacy of the whites. There are more blacks than there are whites attending school in Cape Colony at present; the result is that the educational and property qualifications needed for the franchise

will soon be attained by large numbers of Kaffirs, with the result that Cape Colony will be ruled by black men. Mr. Jones urges immediate withdrawal of voting power from all colored persons, and thinks that the federation of the South African colonies should be accomplished on the basis of leveling down the condition of the Cape Colony blacks to that of the Kaffirs in the other colonies.

Chinese Labor Defended.

Mr. Charles Sydney Goldman, writing in the same review, defends Chinese labor as absolutely

essential to the Transvaal. His article, however, is little more than a careful summary of reasons already alleged in defense of the measure.

Writing in the *National Review* for April, Mr. Ernest Crawley predicts that the experiment of Chinese labor, if carried out with due care, will prove as successful in the Transvaal as it did in British Columbia, as in no other way is it possible fully to develop the enormous resources of the mines, to make it possible to obtain Kaffir laborers for the railways and the farms, or to open up the new colony as a profitable field for British emigration.

FRENCH AMERICA AND THE LOUISIANA CENTENARY.

PIERRE DE COUBERTIN cannot resist a slight dig at Americans in the introduction to his article on the Louisiana Centenary in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. Why is it, he asks, that the Americans, who are usually in advance of other peoples, are always behindhand in the celebration of their national events? Columbus discovered America in 1492, but the Yankees celebrated the four-hundredth anniversary in 1893. Louisiana was sold to the Union in 1803, but the Americans are holding a fair to celebrate it in 1904, and at St. Louis, which is not in Louisiana. He wonders if the Lewis and Clark expedition of 1805 will be really celebrated at Portland in 1905. He thinks it more likely to be in 1906. His article is really an extended review of a new French book, "The Last Years of French Louisiana," by Baron Marc de Villiers de Terrage. The early history of our vast, great West, comprised under the name Louisiana, from the days of the Spanish explorers until its sale to the United States, with references to the reasons of state which impelled the great Napoleon to part with the territory, are sketched rapidly by M. Coubertin in his review. He makes a few original observations, among which is the statement that Pontiac was the greatest of the Indian race, and that he represented to the red men what Booker T. Washington represents to the negro. The First

Consul, he declares, parted with Louisiana because he was ignorant of its resources and political importance. Indeed, this writer charges France through all her history with inexcusable and almost criminal ignorance regarding her colonies. Here, he says, you have the secret of all our (the French) colonial weaknesses.

"We have had our valiant explorers, we have had our faithful colonists, our pioneers and merchants, but what we have always lacked,—our nation as well as our leaders,—are the proper knowledge and understanding of our colonies,—their importance, their size, their wealth, their interests, their future. As to this information, we have been slowly, incompletely, vaguely, informed, and it has been so difficult and so slow, this information, in coming that our opinion is never ready for action to bring about the necessary results."

He concludes by expressing the hope that "a nation which possesses a Shakespeare and a Washington will do itself the honor to erect a monument to the heroes of French America,—a monument upon which the great names of Montcalm and La Salle shall take first rank among the workers in that colossal enterprise of which the fragments are visible everywhere along the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi, and which attest the power and universality of our [French] national genius."

THE PERIL OF THE ICEBERGS.

THE iceberg is an ever-present cause of terror to the mariner of the North Atlantic. Some years ago, the great liners sailing from New York gave up their accustomed course across the Grand Banks, choosing a safer route

to the southward. That the risk was not wholly removed by this action is clearly shown in an article contributed to *McClure's* for June by Mr. P. T. McGrath, of St. John's, Newfoundland, who describes the danger of encounters

with icebergs as the greatest of old ocean's perils.

"As the passengers on some crack flyer throng her rail on a glorious day to view and snap-shot the dazzling spectacle of one of these stately wanderers drifting slowly south in lonely grandeur, a grime smile will probably flicker on the captain's countenance as he hears the exclamations of delight and recalls the fact that only the previous night, in a dense fog, as the passengers lay sleeping, the ship and all on board barely escaped colliding with one of those floating crystal islands. Human science and ingenuity have never devised any contrivance to detect these silent foes; the mightiest fabrics constructed by human hands are frail as eggshells against them, and they have wrought more ruin than any other obstruction that threatens the traffic of the ocean."

Seven-eighths of the floating berg is carried below the water-line; hence, the largest of them, passing southward in the winter and spring, ground on the Newfoundland coast and the Grand Banks. From this region, indeed, the bergs are never absent.

"Nature offers few more impressive sights than these beautiful ivory sea-castles, endowed with every graceful and fantastic outline, and often five hundred feet high and half a mile long. They excite the admiration of all beholders when viewed from a position of safety; but no object is more dreaded by the sailor when, in the inky blackness of a midnight storm, the blinding fury of a snow-squall, or the ghastly shroud of a sodden fog, his ship is crossing the ice-belt on the Banks. For the bergs are thickest there in the path of the steamers, unwarning in their approach and deadly in their embrace, and woe to the ship, however stanch, that tests herself against the towering crystal cliffs."

Mr. McGrath records several instances of steamship collisions with icebergs in which the passengers had the narrowest of escapes from death. One of the most remarkable cases was that of the Guion liner *Arizona*, in 1879.

"She was then the greyhound of the Atlantic and the largest ship afloat—5,750 tons—except the *Great Eastern*. Leaving New York in November for Liverpool, with 509 souls aboard, she was coursing across the Banks, with fair weather, but dark, when, near midnight, about 250 miles east of St. John's, she rammed a monster ice-island at full speed—18 knots. Terrific was the impact and indescribable the alarm. The passengers, flung from their berths, made for the deck as they stood, though some were so injured as to be helpless; and the calls of these forward, added to the shrieks of the fren-

zied mob of half-clad men and women who charged for the boats, made up a pandemonium. Wild cries arose that the ship was sinking, for she had settled by the head, and with piteous appeals and despairing exclamations the passengers urged the boats over, that they might escape the death they thought inevitable. But the crew were well in hand, the officers maintained order, and a hurried examination being made, the forward bulkhead was seen to be safe. The welcome word was passed along that the ship, though sorely stricken, would still float until she could make a harbor. The vast white terror had lain across her course, stretching so far each way that when descried it was too late to alter the helm. Its giant shape filled the foreground, towering high above the masts, grim and gaunt and ghastly, immovable as the adamantine buttresses of a frowning seaboard, while the liner lurched and staggered like a wounded thing in agony as her engines slowly drew her back from the rampart against which she had flung herself.

"She was headed for St. John's at slow speed, so as not to strain the bulkhead too much, and arrived there thirty-six hours later. That little port—the crippled ship's hospital—has seen many a strange sight come in from the sea, but never a more astounding spectacle than that which she presented the Sunday forenoon she entered there.

"Her deck and forepart were cumbered with great fragments of ice, weighing over two hundred tons in all, shattered from the berg when she struck, being so wedged into the fractures and gaps as to make it unwise to start them until she was docked. The whole population of St. John's lined the water-front to witness her arrival. Her escape was truly marvelous, and the annals of marine adventure may be searched in vain for its equal. From top-rail to keelson her bows were driven in, the gaping wound fully twenty feet wide, and the massive plates and ribs crumpled up like so many pieces of cardboard. All the ironwork was twisted into fantastic forms, the oak planking was smashed into splinters, the beams and stanchions which backed the bow were shattered and torn, and her stem-piece had been wrenched off when she had bitten into the berg." The wonder is that she was not ripped apart and sent to the bottom.

HOW THE "PORTIA" CLIMBED A BERG.

But the *Portia's* story was more wonderful still. The *Portia* was a steamer that plied between New York and Newfoundland. Her captain, at the date of the incident narrated by Mr. McGrath, was Francis Ash, an experienced navi-

gator, of St. John's, who had been ice-pilot of Schley's squadron when it rescued the survivors of the Greeley Arctic expedition in 1884. The story follows:

"In June, 1893, while off the Newfoundland coast, with many tourists aboard, she sighted on a clear day a gleaming northern monarch the magnificent proportions of which excited the admiration of the passengers, who had never seen the like before. Captain Ash estimated its length at 800 feet and its height at 200, and, with its fantastic pinnacles and crystal sides giving back a flood of rainbow tints, it is not surprising that the delighted onlookers begged the skipper to go near, so that they might snap-shot or sketch this ocean colossus at close range. Suddenly, as the ship slowly advanced, a gunshot from the berg, a jar was felt, the ship grated heavily, a low, rumbling sound was heard, the berg quivered and split asunder, and, to the horror of all on board, it was realized that the ship was 'aground' on part of the icy isle. As this mighty fragment sought a new equilibrium in the ocean, its submerged base, being tossed upward, caught the *Portia* as in a cradle, or dock, and lifted her clear out of the water.

"For a moment or two, the situation of the ship and those aboard was critical beyond compare. She lay, nearly upright, in a shelving section of the berg, and if this completed its somersault she and her personnel must meet instant destruction. The horror of it blanched

every cheek and stilled every tongue. Fortunately, the weight of hull and cargo checked the

THE "PORTIA'S" STRANGE ADVENTURE.

up-ending motion and sent the mass settling back again. A huge wave created by the cleavage swept over the fragment holding the *Portia* and launched her back into her native element, with bottom scarred and bruised, but otherwise uninjured.

"Though the story seems incredible, yet it is undeniably true. As the *Portia* approached the berg she ran on a submerged ledge of it. This disturbed the equilibrium of the main body, and the ice below the surface being honey-combed, or 'rotten,' from the effect of the salt water and the summer sun, the shock caused it to turn over, and in doing so it split apart and she was caught on one portion."

The escape seems almost miraculous.

DAMMING THE THAMES RIVER.

A GREAT dam, similar in some respects to the Nile Barrage, is proposed for the Thames River, with a view to the removal of certain disabilities now suffered by the port of London. The leading features of the project, as outlined by Mr. T. W. Barber, are set forth in the May number of *Page's Magazine* (London). According to this description, the dam is to be placed at Gravesend, thus converting the Thames between that point and Teddington into a great fresh-water lake forty-six miles long. The accompanying illustration shows what the

general appearance of the dam would be. A wide road will run along its top, and a tunnel beneath will provide for railroad traffic. The structure proposed consists mainly of mass concrete and granite facing.

"Part of the water flowing over the dam would provide electric power for working the locks, which are four in number, and also a complete equipment of power capstans and gear. The whole of the traffic would be regulated from a pilot-tower forming a permanent feature of the barrage."

WHAT ABOUT THE SEWAGE PROBLEM?

"One of the first considerations naturally bound up with this scheme is the health of London; but it is urged that the action of the tides upon the Thames, so far from being health-giving, is entirely detrimental. Mr. W. P. Birch has shown that the action of the tides keeps the river continually saturated with about forty-five days' soilage, and, says Mr. Barber, 'they back up twice daily the natural drainage of the river for five hours, and keep it in solution and circulation for forty-five days before removing it, the effect being exactly similar to backing up in a sewer.'

"In place of this, Mr. Barber's scheme would stop all tides at the dam, the inclosed water area having numerous affluents—chiefly Teddington Weir—and only one outlet. Thus, the water would have a slow downward current, never reversing, so that everything entering it would pass downward to the dam. It is thus proposed to obtain by one work a navigable depth of water varying from 65 feet at Gravesend to 32 feet at London Bridge without dredging or any interference with the river bottom or banks such as that proposed by the Royal Commission on the Port of London, which Mr. Barber says cannot be carried out.

"The cost of the dam is set down at £3,658,000 [\$18,290,000], including compensations and other contingencies, while the annual sav-

ing in dredging, repairs, cost of operating dock entrances, time of vessels, towage, etc., is estimated at £850,100 [\$4,250,500] annually. It is also urged that the scheme will form the basis of an effective water-supply, obviating an expenditure of £24,000,000 [\$120,000,000] in this direction; also rendering unnecessary an expenditure of £30,000,000 [\$150,000,000] on the purchase of docks, and £7,000,000 [\$35,000,000] on improving the docks and dredging the river—total, £81,000,000 [\$305,000,000].

WHAT SUCH A DAM WOULD ACCOMPLISH.

"The immediate advantages to shipping promised by Mr. Barber may be summarized as follows: The possibility of ships approaching London Bridge at all times, and of remaining at one level for loading or unloading alongside the quays; an immense saving consequent upon the dock entrances being left open; absence of mud from the docks and back waters; prevention of floods from exceptional tides; reduced cost of towage and repairing banks; control of the river, etc., and greatly increased safety of navigation. Owing to the removal of all vessels from mid-stream, it is anticipated that there would be excellent opportunity for pleasure traffic, boating, sailing, and fishing, while last, but not least, in this attractive list may be mentioned the possible provision of an efficient steamboat service with fixed piers."

DOMELA NIEUWENHUIS, A GREAT DUTCH SOCIALIST.

FOR the past quarter of a century, one of the most remarkable of Dutchmen, F. Domela Nieuwenhuis, has been the father and moving spirit of socialism in Holland. In March, 1879, Dr. Nieuwenhuis resigned his position as a Lutheran minister to devote his entire life to the advance of socialism and the interests of the Dutch working classes. In the *Hollandsche Revue* (Haarlem), there is an extended character sketch of Dr. Nieuwenhuis, from which we condense the following:

F. Domela Nieuwenhuis, the son of a Danish immigrant, was born on January 31, 1846. He studied theology at his father's request, and became an ordained minister at the age of twenty-five. In speaking of himself, he states that he never could, even from his infancy, take for granted what he was taught without searching and thinking. He studied the works of Feuerbach, which undoubtedly had a special influence on his later mental development; but he confesses in a short autobiography that he was brought up in the fear of God, and that he suffered much before he could fully renounce the faith of his forefathers. He made his first step toward radicalism in the church where he acted as minister of a Lutheran congregation, in Beverwijk, and with the approval of the church council he abolished the celebration of Ascension Day. When appointed as a minister at The Hague, his initiatory sermon was to have been preached on Ascension Day, in 1875. He was excused at his request, and Dr. Knotternus, who preached in his place on that day, attacked him for so doing. He replied in a sermon on "Anger," in which he stated that those who arouse anger in the world are the very people who improve the world. In his sermon, in 1877, on "The Coming Religion," he outlined a divine service without a creed, the religion of love for mankind.

HIS WORK FOR SOCIALISM.

He was devoted to socialistic work in heart and soul. He frequently spoke to labor unions, and his "Social Letters" in *De Werkmansbode* (The Laborer's Messenger) attracted general attention before it was known that he was the author. He publicly renounced the Church in 1879, saying in his farewell sermon "that science and the Church could not go hand-in-hand, that the latter shows in conflict with the former, and that as he could not destroy with one hand what he built up with the other, his conscience forbade him to be longer the pastor of his congregation."

Becoming more and more convinced that his

socialistic work should not be confined to lectures and speeches, and that he must contribute with his pen to socialistic literature, he founded the periodical *Recht voor Allen* (Justice for All). The first copy was published in March, 1879, and

F. DOMELA NIEUWENHUIS.

(The leader of the Dutch Socialists.)

soon became an enduring monument of the labor movement in The Netherlands.

The years 1886 and 1887 were the most eventful of his life. There appeared at that time, in his periodical, an article entitled "De Koning Komt" ("The King Comes"). Nieuwenhuis, as chief editor, was accused of *lèse-majesté*, and was condemned to one year in state prison, although it was proved that he was not the author of the article. Afraid of the consequences of the bitter feeling and excitement among the Labor party caused by this trial, he was allowed to leave the prison before his time expired. Through this event, he gained the sympathies of his followers, and was elected, the first Socialist, to the Dutch Parliament. His exclusive position there had but little bearing on the party, and he was not reelected.

When, in 1894, the Socialist party split into the "parliamentary" and the "revolutionary" factions, Nieuwenhuis joined the ranks of the latter, remaining until 1897, when he took an an-

archistic position and founded the party of "Free Socialists," which at the present time is composed of forty-five groups. The paper of this political party, *De Vrije Socialist* (The Free Socialist), is a mere continuation of the *Justice for All*, of which he is still chief editor.

Nieuwenhuis' character has been praised by all his friends. Vliegen describes him as a man of great energy and will-power, gifted with a fascinating presence that attracts the masses. He leads a model life, is blameless in every respect, and is a strict temperance man.

Among his writings deserve to be mentioned "The French Civil War in 1871," "How Our Country Is Ruled on Paper and How in Reality," "The Future State of Society," "Was Jesus in Favor of or Against Socialism?" "Is Not Socialism an Error?" and the translation of Karl Marx', "Capital and Labor."

NIEUWENHUIS' OPINION ON THE FAR-EASTERN WAR.

It may be of interest here to quote his opinion on the present Russo-Japanese war, which he gave recently in the *Free Socialist*.

"The greatest evil in this war would be Russia's victory. It must be well understood that

in speaking of Russia we mean the official Russia, the empire of the Czar. This represents the highest state of reaction, and is of the greatest danger to any progressive movement. It is a model of the most petrified and unimprovable tyranny, and its victory would bring on a reactionary period which would be felt throughout the world. We therefore say that the annihilation of Russia's power is the only condition for progress. If Japan succeed, she will make herself meritorious for humanity, without intending or knowing anything about it herself, although we well know that the motives for this war were low, and were based on commercial interest only. Evil can thus bring forth something good. A final victory of the Japanese over Czarism is of no less importance than the victory of the ancient Greeks at Marathon, who were thus successful in bringing the Persian power to a standstill, and prevented the barbarization of Europe by Asia. At the present time, the barbarizing of Asia by Russia should be prevented. Japan's victory means the modernization of Asia; and although Japan leaves much to be desired, it is still more preferable than the bestializing of mankind by the Russian bear."

A FRENCH TRIBUTE TO THE CIVILIZING INFLUENCE OF FOREIGN MISSIONS.

DESPITE the charges that can be justly brought against Christian missionaries, and the political capital which their home governments are so often tempted to make out of their labors, the Christian mission in foreign lands has been, and is to-day, a mighty civilizing force. This is the verdict of M. Gaston Bonet-Maury, professor of the Protestant faculty of theology of the College of France. In two numbers of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, M. Bonet-Maury considers the Christian missions in their rôle of civilizers. He condemns unsparingly the intervention of France in Tahiti, that of England and her allies in Samoa or the Philippines, and that of Germany in China. There have been, however, he admits, cases in which missionaries have brought about the paramount influence of their country among heathen natives in a proper and beneficial way. Such cases were those of the Moravian Brothers, who, by their apostolic devotion and example of hard work, have made Germany beloved to the negroes of the Antilles and to the Eskimos of Labrador; the Picpus Fathers, in the Marquesas Islands and the Sandwich Islands; the Plöermel Brothers,

among the negroes of Senegal; the Fathers of the Holy Ghost, in the Sudan, and the White Fathers (Dominican) in Algeria and equatorial Africa, who have made the natives love France.

In general, the civilizing influence of Christian missionaries is made evident in two ways,—their scientific work, and their social and moral influence. Taking up the scientific work and of the foreign missionaries all over the world, prefacing his remarks with the statement that "war, religious proselyting, and commerce have been most powerful agencies in the exploration of the world," he goes through the entire list of missionaries who have contributed to the advancement of science. We condense his exhaustive study of this point.

From La Pérouse and Franklin to Lamy, there have been many missionary martyrs in the cause of geographical science. The explorer remains but a short time in a country; the missionary lives there for years. He is consequently better equipped for scientific work. The Jesuits Ricci and Secchi were eminent astronomers. In the thirteenth century, it was a Pope and a King of France who sent civilizing monks among the

Turks, just then invading Europe. The Franciscans and Dominicans from Portugal and France, by their great learning, exerted a powerful influence upon the Grand Khan. One of the Lazarists, Père Huc, later traveled in Tibet and China, and his works are authorities. Père Armand David also made three voyages to China, and was helpful in the correction of the maps of that region. Pigneau de Béhaine, a French bishop, two centuries ago, founded the French influence in Indo-China, and Père Chevalier, for his hydrographic work at Tonquin, was presented, in 1898, with a medal by the French Geographical Society. But the great work of French Catholic missions in the far East is the observatory of Zi-ka-wei, founded by the Jesuit fathers Lélec and Colombel, which has rendered splendid service to astronomy and meteorology. Their observations have been used by Sir William Hart, since 1898, to determine the approach of typhoons throughout China, Manchuria, and Korea. The orthodox Russian church has also furnished scientific missionaries in this region, the best known of whom is the Archimandrite Palladius.

The Protestant missionaries came later than the Catholics, but they have made important contributions to science. The Rev. Edward Robinson wrote a work on the geography of Palestine (1838), and Dr. F. W. Holland one on the Sinai Peninsula (1856). Three societies for the exploration of the Holy Land are practically directed by the missionaries,—the English Palestine Exploration Fund, the German Palestine Society, and the American Palestine Exploration Society. In Borneo and Sumatra, the American, German, and Dutch missionaries have thoroughly explored their fields of work.

From the time of the early Catholic missionaries in Africa to David Livingstone, there have been many names indented with exploration and science in all portions of the Dark Continent. Catholic orders, Protestant missionaries, and French Huguenots have opened up Africa, South America, and North America to the world of civilization and progress. In the history of Canada and the United States, such names as Hennepin, Lejeune, Marquette, Joliet, Roger Williams, and John Eliot are eloquent tributes to the zeal and heroism of missions. Norwegian pastors explored and mapped Greenland. The continent of Australia was explored by an English Catholic and an American Protestant missionary; and the islands of the South Sea bear the impress of the work of such men as Taylor, Douarre, Williams, Ellis, Chalmers, and Couppeé. So much for geography.

As linguists and dictionary-makers, such

names as Ulphilas, the apostle of the Goths, and Cyril, the apostle of the Slavs, head the list of missionary effort. Then follow works on Chinese literature by the Catholic, Zottoli, and the Protestants, Gützlaff and Faber. Dr. James Legge, the Scotch missionary who spent thirty years at Hongkong, became such a sinologue that he was afterward made professor of Chinese in the University of Oxford. Merson, in Burma; Ziegenbalg, in Malabar; Boré, in Persia; Cœurdox, Barthélemy, and William Jones, in India; Bollig and Gismondi, in Syria; Lepsius, in Egypt; Isenberg, in Abyssinia; Cust and Koeller, in equatorial Africa; Hans Egede, in Greenland; John Eliot, among the American Indians; Pedro, in Mexico and South America; and Janssen, Law, and Gordon, in the South Seas,—these are men whose names history will write high for their contributions to the world's knowledge of the languages of strange or unknown peoples.

GREAT MORAL UPLIFTERS.

The moral and social influence of Christian missions, M. Bonet-Maury declares, is worthy of the greatest praise. In the first place, entirely aside from the moral elevation brought about in the individual heathen, "for whose wooden idols they have succeeded in substituting the image of the true God," there are a multitude of points in respect to which inestimable benefit is conferred upon the natives by the missions. The fetish-worshippers are generally lazy and impoverished. They labor for the next meal, and do not understand precautions for the future,— "when a bad harvest comes, an entire people is swept away by famine." Despite this, they are proud, and consider themselves superior to Europeans. "This pride prevents them from improving their ways of life; and, in the cases of the Arabs and the Malays, we must add to this lying and trickery."

The two chief pagan vices, against the ravages of which every religion but Christianity is powerless to combat, are intemperance and the social evil. This French writer traces the terrible effects of alcohol on the natives of Africa and Oceania and the red men of North America; of opium on the Chinese and the Hindus, and of sexual immorality upon Mongolian peoples and the Hindus, partly sanctioned by the so-called "sacred prostitution." The Christian missionaries have always fought these vices from the beginning of their labors. They persuade the native peoples, if they are nomads, to settle down and cultivate the soil, to free their slaves, while the missionaries educate the illiterate and endeavor to dispel their superstitions. They persuade the natives to work regularly,

and endeavor to arouse them out of their apathy. The school of the Fathers of the Holy Ghost at Bagamayo, in Zanguebar, and the professional schools opened by the Protestant missions at Lovedale, in South Africa, have succeeded, "bit by bit, in persuading the heathen to attach himself to the soil, to respect the property of his neighbor, and to develop a love of justice and truth." In the struggle against alcoholism, the missionaries invoke the aid of the civil authorities and ecclesiastical discipline. "If they have the ear of the government, they try to obtain a prohibition of the sale of opium and of alcoholic drinks; for example, the Mikado of Japan, upon their petition, has prohibited the importation of opium into Formosa and Khama. Besides personal effort in the direction of abstinence, the missionaries refuse the sacraments of the Church to drunkards, and care for the worst of these in special hospitals."

It is very difficult to fight polygamy and the social evil, especially in Mohammedan countries, where plural marriage is sanctioned by religion. The missionaries, however, have succeeded in bringing about the abolition of public prostitution in several Asiatic countries. In the Presidency of Madras, in 1895, with the aid of the British viceroy, the anti-Nautch movement was successful. The Woman's Christian Temperance Union of the United States succeeded in bringing about the suppression of the *djouro*s, the Japanese immoral dance, and its attendant evils in California, and in 1897, after seven years of petition to the Japanese Parliament, the Chamber of Peers gave its sanction to the abolition of this evil. Suicide is becoming less frequent among the Chinese who are in touch with the missionaries, because of the greater respect for human life.

EDUCATIONAL WORK OF MISSIONS.

This French writer recounts the labors of a number of illustrious native converts to Christianity who have been stimulating examples to their compatriots. He refers especially to Maka and his missionary labors in the Gilbert Islands and the Hawaiian Islands, and to that noble high-caste Hindu woman, Pundita Ramabai, who has done so much to better the lot of all the women of India. In general education, the work of the missionaries is too well known to need reference here. The schools and colleges for young girls have been especially successful, and a number of Asiatic women—Japanese, Chinese, Hindu, and Persian—have made brilliant successes as physicians, lawyers, and scientists. The tone of family life has been raised, not only as a result of the preaching of the missionaries, but as a re-

sult of the example set by their own conjugal purity. War has been lessened. The history of the long struggle for the abolition of slavery is replete with evidences and examples of missionary zeal and heroism. Missionaries of France and England were chiefly instrumental in persuading the Conference of Brussels, in 1889, to abolish slavery in more than one part of Africa. The French Dominican fathers have, for ten years, pursued a policy of liberating slaves in Africa and persuading them to form new towns under the instruction and supervision of the missionaries. It was the missionaries who brought about the reforms (such as they have been) in the Congo and in Burma, and the amelioration of prison conditions in Japan.

PUBLIC SANITATION.

Some of the most admirable results of missionary work are evident in the matter of public sanitation.

"Not only have these evangelists, by precept and the example of their own lives, introduced and spread a knowledge of bodily hygiene, but they have also organized medical assistance in all places where it is needed. Following the example of the Catholic bishops and the Hospitaler orders of the Middle Ages, the missionaries of all denominations, Dominican priests and American Protestants, Sisters of Charity and Deaconesses of Kaiserwerth, have founded hospitals and established dispensaries, taking care of infirm old people, who, especially in Africa, are abandoned, and looking after neglected children, of whom the greater part, especially in China, are condemned to death or prostitution. . . . To Scotch and American missionaries belongs the glory of having formed a large corps of well-trained woman doctors, infirmary professors and deaconesses, who can penetrate into the most sacred corners of the harems and zenanas, and carry there, with the consolation of the Gospel, the relief of a medical art which is worthy of its name."

Missionaries, this writer holds, should be very careful how they appeal to the strong arm of their government for protection. The principle which they should never let escape them is, "that they are, above all, ambassadors of Jesus Christ, the Prince of Peace." It is quite evident, he says, in conclusion, "that by far the greater part of the prejudices which sometimes obtain against foreign missions is due to ignorance of what they have really accomplished. They are certainly a mighty power for good, morally, intellectually, and materially. "We have the right to say that the most certain agent of civilization is the missionary."

ANTONIN DVORÁK, BOHEMIAN-AMERICAN COMPOSER.

WHILE a Czech of the Czechs, the late Antonin Dvorák was the composer of several musical works which are more generally known as American than any composition by native American musicians. For three years, also, he was director of the National Conservatory of America. In an appreciation of his work, the *Outlook* says, editorially :

"It is true he did not contribute as much toward the development of music in America as many men more obscure have contributed ; but he sympathetically endeavored to find here musical elements characteristic of the country and to translate them into forms which would pass current in the world at large. These elements he discovered to his own satisfaction in the negro melodies of the South. It is upon motives from these melodies that he built up his symphony 'From the New World,' and his American quartet and quintet. He urged on American composers the use of this fund of music, forgetting that the American musician is European by descent and training, and quite as alien to the race which created these melodies as any European would be. Dvorák's interest in the negro folk-song was natural, for his own music is but the glorified folk-song of his native Bohemia."

HIS PEASANT ORIGIN.

Dvorák was a butcher's son, a peasant of the peasants. His musical instincts seemed to supply him, largely self-taught as he was, with that sense of musical form and that restraint which commonly result only from education. The *Independent* characterizes his symphony "From the New World" as "frankly external in its fresh naïveté," and as "moving buoyantly from mood to mood, expressing at least one phase of the American temperament, but not penetrating deep." The *Independent* compares him to Watteau, the great painter, who was also a Bohemian. It says :

"Like Antoine Watteau, Antonin Dvorák had his childish talent first stimulated by the wandering musicians and strolling players that he saw from the window of his home. Painter and composer, moreover, each retained to the last his predominating interest in *genre* subjects. Both came of peasant stock, and both narrowly escaped following the parental calling. Watteau's father was the seventeenth-century equivalent of a plumber, at Valenciennes, while Dvorák senior was village innkeeper and butcher at Mühlsausen "

But here the parallel ceases.

ANTONIN DVORÁK.

(The late Bohemian composer, who wrote on American themes.)

"The Bohemian-Frenchman, Watteau, kept his love for typical figures of his period, but his countless chalk drawings and paintings were mainly of folk in the great world ; of these he has come down as the chief interpreter. Dvorák remained a man of the people, in mind and heart, though he, too, ultimately found prosperity. His creative work as composer was deeply affected by this obstinate survival of what was, he it said, both his strength and his weakness,—his tenacious peasant nature. Watteau came to speak a universal tongue ; Dvorák's Czechish idiom is often provincial and occasionally barbarous. Even after his three fruitful years in New York (1892-95) as head of the National Conservatory, Dr. Dvorák harked back to his racy mannerisms, upon which, indeed, depend much of the delightful gayety and charm of his music. And never, perhaps, did his intellectual power, his grasp as a designer in the large, keep pace with his remarkable flow of cheery and not always significant melody."

Dvorák's American compositions and his work as a conductor in the United States are regarded by his critics (and he himself also believed it) as his best, most successful, musical efforts,

THE WORLD'S PIVOTAL REGION.

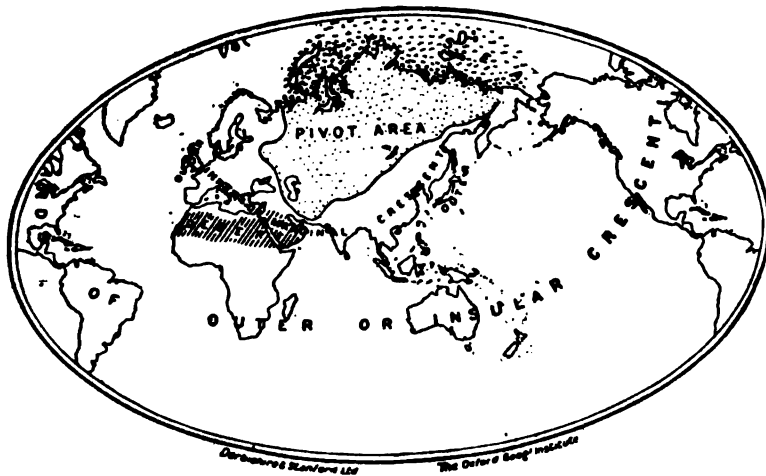
RUSSIA as the pivotal region of the world is the subject of an exhaustive study by H. J. Mackinder, in the *Geographical Journal*. In the first place, he asks us to look upon Europe and European history as subordinate to Asia and Asiatic history, for "European civilization is, in a very real sense, the outcome of the secular struggle against Asiatic invasion." He says:

"For a thousand years, a series of horse-riding peoples emerged from Asia through the broad interval between the Ural Mountains and the Caspian Sea, rode through the open spaces

continent. It was upon navigation of oceanic rivers that was based the Potamic stage of civilization, that of China on the Yang-tse, that of India on the Ganges, that of Babylonia on the Euphrates, that of Egypt on the Nile. It was essentially upon the navigation of the Mediterranean that was based what has been described as the Thalassic stage of civilization,—that of the Greeks and the Romans. The Saracens and the Vikings held sway by navigation of the oceanic coasts."

Without stopping to allow us to take breath after these vast geographical generalizations, Mr. Mackinder goes on to say:

"The all-important result of the discovery of the Cape road to the Indies was to connect the western and eastern coastal navigations of Euro-Asia, even though by a circuitous route, and thus in some measure to neutralize the strategical advantage of the central position of the steppe nomads by pressing upon them in rear. The revolution commenced by the great mariners of the Columbian generation endowed Christendom with the widest pos-



of southern Russia, and struck home into Hungary, in the very heart of the European peninsula, shaping, by the necessity of opposing them, the history of each of the great peoples around,—the Russians, the Germans, the French, the Italians, and the Byzantine Greeks. That they stimulated healthy and powerful reaction, instead of crushing opposition under a widespread despotism, was due to the fact that the mobility of their power was conditioned by the steppes, and necessarily ceased in the surrounding forests and mountains."

A rival mobility of power, he goes on to show, was that of the Vikings, in their boats. In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, all the settled margins of the old world, from Poland to China, felt the expansive force of mobile power originating in the steppe. Russia, Persia, India, and China were either made tributary to or received Mongol dynasties.

THE RIVAL MOBILITIES OF LAND AND SEA.

"Mobility upon the ocean is the natural rival of horse and camel mobility in the heart of the

sible mobility of power short of a winged mobility. The one and continuous ocean enveloping the divided and insular lands is, of course, the geographical condition of ultimate unity in the command of the sea."

As a result, new Europes were created. "Britain, Canada, the United States, South Africa, Australia, and Japan are now a ring of outer and insular bases for sea power and commerce, inaccessible to the land power of Euro-Asia."

ROMAN VERSUS BYZANTINE.

Then another suggestive generalization is launched.

"It is probably one of the most striking coincidences of history that the seaward and the landward expansion of Europe should, in a sense, continue the ancient opposition between Roman and Greek. Few great failures have had more far-reaching consequences than the failure of Rome to Latinize the Greek. The Teuton was civilized and Christianized by the Roman; the Slav, in the main, by the Greek. It was the Romano-Teuton who in later times embarked upon

the ocean ; it was the Græco-Slav who rode over the steppes, conquering the Turanian. Thus, the modern land power differs from the sea power no less in the source of its ideals than in the material conditions of its mobility."

But with the close of the Columbian epoch, as Mr. Mackinder describes the last four hundred years, the ascendancy of sea power is threatened by the development of greater mobility in land power.

"Transcontinental railways are now transmuting the conditions of land power, and nowhere can they have such effect as in the closed heart-land of Euro-Asia, in vast areas of which neither timber nor accessible stone was available for road-making. Railways work the greater wonders in the steppe, because they directly replace horse and camel mobility, the road stage of development having here been omitted."

CONSEQUENT GROUPING OF POWERS.

Russia replaced the Mongol empire, and the full development of her modern railway mobility is merely a matter of time.

"Outside the pivot area, in a great inner crescent, are Germany, Austria, Turkey, India, and China, and in an outer crescent, Britain, South Africa, Australia, the United States, Canada, and Japan. In the present condition of the balance of power, the pivot state, Russia, is not equivalent to the peripheral states, and there is room for an equipoise in France. The oversetting of the balance of power in favor of the pivot state, resulting in its expansion over the marginal lands of Euro-Asia, would permit of the use of vast continental resources for fleet-building, and the empire of the world would then be in sight. This might happen if Germany were to ally herself with Russia. The threat of such an event should, therefore, throw France into an alliance with the over-sea powers."

The potentialities of South America might have the casting vote. Mr. Mackinder's contention is that, from a geographical point of view, they are likely to rotate around the pivot state, which is always likely to be great, but with limited mobility as compared with the surrounding marginal and insular powers.

LABOR CONDITIONS IN RUSSIA.

AN exceedingly unattractive picture of industrial life in Russia is presented by John Callan O'Laughlin in the *World's Work* for June. Mr. O'Laughlin has studied Russian industrial conditions at first hand. He finds that Russian factory workmen form less than 2 per cent. of the population of the empire, which is naturally an agricultural country. "In no other country of Europe," he says, "are wages so low as in Russia. American workmen earn twice, and even three times, as much. The average monthly wages paid in the Departments of Moscow and Vladimir are as follows :

" Men.....	\$3 to \$3.50 a week
Women.....	\$3 a week
Youths between fifteen and seventeen.....	\$3.50 a week
Girls between fifteen and seventeen.....	\$3 a week
Children of both sexes.....	\$2.50 a week

"In the western section of the empire, wages are 50 per cent. higher than in the central section. As one goes farther eastward, wages progressively diminish, and in the extreme east they are at least 20 per cent. below those of the industrial region of the center. The number of days of work in the west is greater than in the center, and the number of days of work in the center is greater than in the east. In the Baltic provinces and at St. Petersburg and neighborhood, the working days number 290 annually ; in

the center, they number 280, and in the east, 270.

"The following average monthly wages are paid in the various important industries. To get the St. Petersburg scale, 30 per cent. should be added.

" Cotton industry—men, \$10; women, \$9.
Linen industry—men, \$9; women, \$6.
Silk industry—men, \$12; women, \$5.
Sugar-refining industry—men, \$7; women, \$3.50.
Glass industry—men, \$6.50; women, \$3.
Porcelain industry—men, \$9; women, \$6.
Steel industry—men, \$12."

There is a good deal of industrial unrest. But the imperial government takes a strong position in labor matters, absolutely prohibiting strikes and trade-unions, but also suppressing the company-store system. As to the possible effect of the present war on industrial conditions in Russia, Mr. O'Laughlin says :

"It is nonsense to suppose that the grievances of labor in Russia will provoke revolution any more than similar grievances in the United States will precipitate it. That a propaganda, directed principally from Germany, is in progress, is true. 'Workmen, pray for Japan,' read a printed bill that fell from nowhere in a St. Petersburg factory, 'for in Russia's defeat you will achieve your rights.' The workmen seem, however, to be too patriotic to take advantage

of the embarrassment of the government. The great majority earnestly and sincerely wish the triumph of the Czar. The authorities are aware that the discontent of the men is due principally to long hours, excessive fines (which are pocketed by employers), and low wages. The first two

grievances are based upon illegal acts, but the last is an economic condition which the minister of finance does not care to touch. Wherever the men are well treated, they have never given trouble. They are good workmen, with little initiative."

WOMAN IN INDUSTRY.

IT has become quite the fashion to assume that woman's economic independence, if not already achieved, is at least well assured. That this is a hasty assumption is maintained with much force of reasoning by Mrs. Flora McDonald Thompson in the *North American Review* for May.

While women wage-earners, including all above ten years of age, form 17.22 per cent. of the industrial population, Mrs. Thompson shows that this numerical strength is constantly depleted by marriage. "In consequence of this, the woman who is a unit of production has no effect other than to confuse economic problems. She eternally eludes classification with reference to the volume of her production and its cost by fitfully disappearing from the economic order as the attraction of sex makes demands upon her. Her aim in industry is not a livelihood, the laborer's aim and the basis of calculation from which economic equations are formed. She works as a makeshift pending marriage, and thus she tends always to sink to a level with the lowest order of labor, unskilled—the worth of which is reckoned, not according to its power, but according to the shifting stress of the necessities of the laborer."

INCREASING THE COST OF LIVING.

Considering also the fact that as women engage in men's work they withdraw an indispensable force from household production, it is obvious that one effect of woman's so-called industrial independence is to increase the cost of living, while at the same time debasing the value of labor.

"The wages of women being fixed without reference to the cost of living, they tend, in competing with men, to reduce wages below what it costs to live. Thus, as they abandon the economy of the household for wage-earning, they put labor in the anomalous position of having living expenses increase in inverse ratio to wages. This is a perversion of the economic law of wages, which have always a tendency to increase as the cost of living increases. Women, however, disturb this relation by engaging in wage-earning, and in this instance they have the par-

ticular effect of depleting subsistence. Plainly, if wages are less than the cost of living, labor is poorly sustained,—insufficiently nourished. Thus, both directly and indirectly, woman in industry, considered with strict reference to economy, operates both to increase the cost of production and to diminish the efficiency of labor."

In reply to the contention that displacements of men in industry due to the advance of women are similar to the effects wrought by the introduction of labor-saving machinery, Mrs. Thompson points out that women's wage-earning offers no compensation for the hardship it entails upon men in the benefits of facilitated production such as follow upon the use of machinery. The sole economic effect of woman's labor, she holds, is to increase cost and diminish efficiency in production. At the same time, there is no diminution of men's responsibility.

"The man remains liable for the support of the family, even though his wife and daughter, competing with him in business, should lower his wages to the starvation point. Woman labor is an economic element as abnormal as convict labor, and it is equally pernicious, for the reason that legitimate labor is taxed for its support."

WOMAN ILL ADAPTED TO MAN'S WORK.

To the question What has the industrial revolution accomplished for woman? Mrs. Thompson makes answer:

"It has secured her a competence averaging less than one dollar a day. It has undermined her health. It has trained her in the work of a machine, and made her unskilled in all the labor which supplements the office of wife and mother in the family. It has taken her out of the home.

"The mere fact of the average woman's success in industry, as betokened in the wages she receives—less than one dollar a day—in itself is emphatic declaration of the futility of women's undertaking of men's work. The depravity of it appears in its effect upon the woman's physical organism. An exhaustive and scholarly investigation of the relation of men's work to the

health of women wage-earners was made by the Massachusetts Bureau of Labor Statistics. In this report, the conclusion is reached that immature girls should be prohibited by law from working in factories, stores, business institutions of all descriptions, and that the law should have jurisdiction over the labor of all women, to determine, as does the Council of Salubrity in France, what branches of industry a woman may engage in without detriment to her health. In other words, so ill adapted to men's work is her physical constitution proved to be by experience and scientific investigation that a woman's choice of occupation should be legally re-

stricted. The economic reason alleged for this is that the reproductive organs in particular are injured by the strain of men's work, and the human race deteriorates in consequence of woman's impaired physical ability to perform the maternal function. Now, in the design of nature, which neither university courses nor political emancipation can overthrow, the destiny of woman is wifehood, maternity. Abstract these offices from any calculation concerning the sex, and we have the end of the world. It is axiomatic that the first thing indispensable to even the progress of woman is the continuance of the human species."

GERMANY'S FAILURE.

IF "Calchas" is right in the article which he contributes to the *Fortnightly Review*, it is not Russia which is now the last in influence of the great Continental powers, but Germany. "The Bankruptcy of Bismarckian Policy" is the title of his article. The severe truth, begins "Calchas," is that "Germany is at the present moment the most isolated power, that Berlin has been deposed from its predominance in Europe, and that the whole Bismarckian system of policy has come to total bankruptcy in the hands of the Iron Chancellor's successors." Formerly, the magnetic pole of diplomacy oscillated between Berlin and St. Petersburg; at present, it oscillates between Paris and London. This is largely the result of the Anglo-French understanding, which "Calchas" approves highly of as making for international stability. But it does this at the expense of the Kaiser. He says:

"We see the master-feature of the agreement in its effect upon the position and prospects of the powers. It completely destroys the diplomatic prospects of Germany. To say that it was not directed against her is a verbal formula. The fact is only partly true. So far as it is true, it is not important. If not directed against Germany, the Anglo-French settlement works most powerfully against Germany. It leaves her statesmen nonplused; it deprives her diplomacy of the fulcrum by which it had exerted its strongest leverage upon the international situation. The Franco-Russian alliance was already the principal obstacle to all the ambitions of Pan-Germanism on land. The Anglo-French agreement places a more formidable obstacle across the path of the Kaiser's ambitions by sea."

The bankruptcy of the Bismarckian policy

has been due, primarily, to Germany's overtrading upon it, and partly to the revolt of England against it. Both the Kaiser and Count von Bülow, says "Calchas," blundered badly. Both, by overconfidence, did all they could to destroy Germany's brilliant prospects.

"The posture of the world has rarely seemed more favorable to the purposes of any great power than it was to those of Germany, nor less auspicious for the future of any country than it seemed for us [the English] with the opening months of the Boer war. The climax of opportunity is always the point of peril. The Kaiser, with prodigal rashness, with a brilliancy of daring that took away the world's breath, exposed the aims of German policy in every direction. Count von Bülow gloried with equal zest in revealing the pulse of the machine. The Bagdad Railway concession startled Russia for the first time into recognition of the fact that the formula upon which Bismarckian diplomacy was founded in the beginning, and with which St. Petersburg had been successfully amused at repeated intervals long after it had ceased to be true, had in reality become a thing of the past. With the concession for a German railway to the Persian Gulf, it was impossible to pretend any more that Germany had no political interests in the Eastern question. Russia has since listened to the formula on several occasions with well-simulated solemnity, but she has never since believed it."

The only solid and progressive achievement during the present Kaiser's reign has been Germany's naval policy. That policy has already made Germany the third naval power in the world. But, as "Calchas" insists, it has been purchased by the Fatherland's isolation in Europe.

ELECTRICAL ACTION IN PLANTS AND ANIMALS.

SOME of the results of the latest investigations of electrical phenomena in plants and animals are given in an article by Dr. W. Biedermann, in the *Ergebnisse der Physiologie* (Wiesbaden).

Nowhere else in organic nature is there an example of the direct generation of mechanical and electrical energy, on a large scale, of corresponding adaptation of structure and change of function, similar to that found in the so-called electric fishes, which have the power of discharging electricity at will, as a means of defense.

A number of fishes have this power to a certain degree, but the electric organ is most perfectly developed in the South American eel (*Gymnotus*), in which there is a pair of electric organs lying on the ventral side of the tail; in the electric sheath-fish (*Malapterurus*), in which the electric battery ensheaths the body; and in the fish known as the "torpedo," which has electric organs on each side of the head.

STRUCTURE OF THE "ELECTRIC" ORGANS.

The organs consist of columns of living tissue that originate as muscle but lose all resemblance to it in the course of development and take the form of thin plates, a fraction of a millimeter thick, placed one above another. The organ has a very large nerve that sends a branch to each plate, and this branch subdivides, inside the electric plate, into fine threads forming a delicate network connected with innumerable microscopic electric rods. The active electro-motor principle is supposed to lie in this delicate terminal network, with its electric rods, and the degree of electric power is directly correlated with the degree of development of this structure. It is a noteworthy fact that the blood-supply of the electric organ is very meager as compared with the blood-supply of the muscles. In the ray fishes, the blood vessels never penetrate the plates that compose the organ, but lie between them.

Observations of the action of the electric current were made by means of a telephone placed in connection with the fish and provided with a device attached to the vibrating disk, by means of which any electrical stimulus conveyed to it would be registered by a line drawn on paper. It was found that often there is an electric discharge from the fish while swimming, without any defensive purpose. On account of the manner of swimming, the positive pole of the apparatus was sometimes stimulated, and sometimes the negative pole, and it was found that the

quality of the sounds produced through the telephone varied according to the pole stimulated, and may be either weak and dull or sharp and crackling. The electric organs on both sides of the body always discharge simultaneously, like one organ. There is no voluntary variation in the strength of the discharge, but the shock may be made more intense by the cumulative effect of more rapid discharge of the electric organ. A single stimulation of the organ in the electric sheath-fish will produce a whole series of discharges a fraction of a second apart.

The writer distinguishes *weak* and *strong* electric fishes. In the former, the organ lies deeper in the tissues of the body, and lacks the finer development of nervous structure found in the latter.

"ELECTRICAL" PLANTS.

There are certain noteworthy observations on manifestations of electricity in plants which promise to be of great interest from the theoretical point of view. There are probably always electro-motor activities in the different parts of plants, which, it is reasonable to assume, are due to chemical differences in the different layers of cells, and they have been observed, not only as responses to mechanical stimulation, but as accompanying manifestations in the assimilation of carbon dioxide in the regular process of plant nutrition.

Certain plants, among them iris, nicotine, begonia, and nasturtium, are more favorable than others for these experiments. If one of them be placed in connection with a galvanometer by means of electrodes attached to leaves on different sides, and one side of the plant be exposed to sunlight while the other side is kept shaded, then within from three to ten seconds after exposure to sunlight there will be a flow of electricity from the lighted to the shaded parts amounting to .005 to .02 volt. This continues for about five minutes, when the magnet begins to swing back and shows an opposite current of considerable magnitude. The manifestations are similar to those of tetanized nerve.

The electric current of green leaves is least in diffuse daylight, greater in refracted light, and most in direct sunlight, and it is further affected by the temperature, 20° C. being the optimum for iris. Cooking the leaves destroys their electric activity, and the electric manifestations are not found in plants that do not have green leaves. This was considered as proof that the generation of electricity accompanies the assimilation of carbon dioxide.

BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE POPULAR AMERICAN MONTHLIES.

Industrial Topics.—The prevailing American interest in all that makes for material progress is well illustrated in the June numbers of the popular magazines. Even the exclusive pages of the *Atlantic Monthly* have been invaded by this restless spirit of industrialism. In that dignified periodical there is a well-informed article on "Trolley Competition with the Railroads," by Ray Morris. This writer believes that while the interurban trolley roads are certain to undergo a period of foreclosure and reorganization during the next ten years, they will become, after readjustments and the development of electric transportation, the natural and profitable short-haul passenger-carriers of the country. This month's financial article in the *World's Work* is entitled "How the Unmerged Pacific Roads Stand." The writer asserts that real consolidation of the Hill and Harriman interests in the Northwest is an impossibility. "They will divide their world between them. They cannot share it. Each is too strong, too autocratic, too impatient of advice and restraint." Mr. Lewis Nixon contributes to the *World's Work* an interesting forecast of the superseding of steam by the gas engine, especially for use in factories and ships. By the use of these engines, a ten-thousand-ton cruiser would to-day proceed around the world at fourteen knots an hour, without taking on fuel, and without sacrificing any of her war efficiency. All this has come about since the *Oregon* made her famous run from San Francisco to Cuba, stopping to coal at Valparaiso. In the *Cosmopolitan*, Mr. William P. Stewart describes the glass-making industry of this country. Thomas P. Steinmetz, one of the greatest electrical inventors of the world, who has advanced from a poor German student to become an American industrial leader, is sketched for the readers of the *World's Work* by Arthur Goodrich. "Wasted Machinery on the Panama Canal" is the subject of an article in the May number of *Cassier's Magazine* in which are presented many interesting facts regarding the abandoned improvements of the old French company.

Problems in Sociology.—Mr. John H. Denison contributes to the *Atlantic* for June a thoughtful paper entitled "The Great Delusion of Our Time," in which he discusses the doctrine of natural selection in its relations to social progress, maintaining that we have been carried away by this theory, which "undertakes to solve the social question by disintegrating society," and as proof of his thesis he points to the present aspect of the labor question, the political situation in New York, Chicago, St. Louis, and other great cities, the enormous development of "graft," the thievish character of our new methods of finance, the Standard Oil operations, the Turkish situation, and the impotency of our modern civilization to put a stop to lynching or to prevent war between Japan and Russia. Mr. William Thorp, in the *World's Work*, shows the methods adopted in Jamaica for the solution of the

negro problem. Mr. F. Cunliffe-Owen discusses, in *Munsey's*, what he calls "The Real Yellow Peril," by which he means the danger of an Oriental uprising against Western opinions, and of the wholesale expulsion of the white man from Asia. Prof. John R. Commons brings to a close, in the May number of the *Chautauquan*, a series of articles on the racial composition of the American people, dealing, in the closing article, with problems of amalgamation and assimilation. Various topics in the field of philanthropy and penology are treated in the current issue of the *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* (Philadelphia). Mr. G. A. Kleene writes on "The Problem of Medical Charity," Mr. Franklin B. Kirkbride on "Some Phases of the Dispensary Problem," Mr. Benjamin C. Marsh on "Causes of Vagrancy and Methods of Eradication," Mr. William H. Allen on "Fresh Air Work," Dr. Samuel McCune Lindsay on "The Public Charities of Porto Rico," and Mr. Robert W. Hebbard on "Supervision of Public Charities in New York." In the same number, there are papers on "Correctional Work in Michigan," by Lucius C. Storrs; "The Education of Juvenile Delinquents," by F. H. Nibecker, and "Recent Tendencies in American Criminal Legislation," by Samuel J. Barrows. Prof. W. M. Daniels, of Princeton, writes, in the June *Atlantic*, on "The Ethics of Taxation."

Capital and Labor.—The most authoritative account that has been written of the recent disturbances involving the New York building trades is contributed to the current number of the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* (Harvard University) by Prof. John R. Commons. This paper gives a detailed account of the long series of negotiations between the employers and the unions which terminated in the new form of joint government early in the present year. Mr. Peter Roberts writes in the *Annals of the American Academy* on "The Employment of Girls in Textile Industries of Pennsylvania," and Mr. Guy Warfield gives, in *Munsey's* for June, a sketch of "The Great Labor Unions and Their Leaders." In the current number of the *Catholic Quarterly Review* (Philadelphia), the Rev. John A. Ryan discusses at length "The Morality of the Aims and Methods of the Labor Union," concluding that the aims of the union are substantially right, and that its methods, with the exception of occasional violence, tyranny, and a tendency to make excessive demands, are justifiable, both legally and morally.

Municipal Government.—In the *Commons*, of Chicago, for May appears a portion of the Hon. Charles J. Bonaparte's address on "Partisanship in Municipal Politics" before the National Municipal League, in April last. In this address, Mr. Bonaparte takes the ground that the immediate end of municipal reformers in this country is to compel the party organizations now existing to be the agencies of good city govern-

ment. In other words, Mr. Bonaparte would invite bids from both parties for the support of good government—bids in the nomination of good men and for the support of good measures,—and he would close with the highest bidder. Admitting that partisanship in municipal affairs is the source of much evil, Mr. Bonaparte holds that its elimination is neither practicable nor certainly and unreservedly to be desired. His aim, therefore, is to make it, as far as possible, a source of good. In the *Ethical Record* (New York City), which is edited by Mr. Percival Chubb, there is a paper by Mr. John Martin on "Our Municipal Corruption: The Real Culprits." The article is significant of the change of view regarding our municipal ills, due in no small part to the publication of Mr. Steffens' articles on corrupt American city governments, in that it calls for the transformation of our commercial as well as our political system. A few years ago, the cry was for business methods and business men in city government. Now it is recognized that the evil has its roots far deeper. While Mr. Martin believes that municipal ownership would be a help to reform, he recognizes the fact that in the long run the people can be won to the love of honesty only by an increase of intelligence and the stirring of moral sentiment.

Education in the United States.—"Common-Sense Country Schools" is the subject of a paper in the *World's Work* for June by Adele Marie Shaw. In this article, Miss Shaw describes the work of Superintendent Kern, of Winnebago County, Illinois, who some months ago contributed an interesting account of country-school rejuvenation to the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. Superintendent Kern's methods have been fruitful, not only in supplying Winnebago County with well-planned buildings and attractive school grounds, but in teaching the children attending the rural schools the things most useful for them to know as the farmers and farmers' wives of the future. In the *Educational Review* for May appear four of the papers prepared for the recent meeting of the Harvard Teachers' Association. In the same number, "The American College Course" is discussed by Mr. Howard A. Coffin, while Mr. E. O. Vaile reviews the arguments for the reform of spelling, with special reference to the proposed action of the National Educational Association.

Religious Education.—The new movement for religious education is treated at some length in several of the theological journals. In the *American Journal of Theology* (University of Chicago), Dr. George A. Coe, of Northwestern University, analyzes the philosophy of the movement. The principles of religious education are also set forth in a paper by Prof. George E. Dawson, of Harvard, in the May number of the *Biblical World* (University of Chicago). In the *Homiletic Review* for May, President William H. P. Faunce, of Brown University, writes on "The Coördination of the Bible with Other Subjects of Study," advocating the compilation of a book of selections from the Bible suited for use in schools. He believes that it will be easy for Protestants, Catholics, Jews, and agnostics to agree on certain historical and ethical selections from the Bible, which will find their way into general use in the public schools. In this connection, it is interesting to note the observations of an English writer in the *Contemporary Review* for May, who is convinced that "the average boy at school is as little influenced by the religion whose

forms he is encouraged to observe as if God lived on Sundays only, within the chapel only, in theory only." He pleads for a modification of the religious teaching so as to render it less mechanical, more effective.

Natural Science.—Among attractive "nature articles" in the June numbers, we note especially Mr. Theodore C. Smith's "Song Forms of the Thrush," in the *Atlantic*; Dr. H. C. McCook's "The Strange Cycle of the Cicada," in *Harper's*, and Mr. Ernest Thompson Seton's "Master Plowman of the West" (the pocket gopher), in the *Century*. *Outing* has an attractive article on "The Sea Bass of England," by F. G. Afalo. The same number has an article by Mr. William C. Harris on "The Black Bass and Its Habits," and John Burroughs writes on "The Training of Wild Animals."

Art Topics.—American art is distinctively represented among the June articles by Mr. Frank Sewall's "A Sculptor of the Prairie" (Solon H. Borglum), in the *Century*. The title of this article was not carelessly chosen, since the sculptor was born in Utah, has been a resident of Nebraska, and has studied Indian life in South Dakota. Mr. Borglum's work at the St. Louis World's Fair, reproductions of which accompany the *Century* article, well illustrates the spirit of Western life, in which all his productions have their motive. "The Art Palace at St. Louis" is described in *Munsey's* by Mr. W. S. Bridgman. Edwina Spencer writes, in the *Chautauquan* for May, on the sculpture of the exposition. In *Harper's*, "The City of Beautiful Towers" (the hill town of San Gimignano, of Tuscan Italy) is the subject of an interesting paper by Louise C. Hale. Alder Anderson, writing in the *Cosmopolitan*, describes the paintings in the Paris Panthéon. The "Ideal Village" is described in the *World's Work* by Joy Wheeler Dow. Photographs of typical New England villages are used to illustrate Mr. Dow's article. In the *Craftsman* for May, the subject of "Parks" is treated by H. K. Bush-Brown, and "The Town Beautiful" by Susan F. Stone. In the *House Beautiful* (Chicago), Prof. Oscar L. Triggs writes on "The Meaning of Industrial Art," attempting an analysis of the new movement. In the May number of the *Bookman* appears the second installment of Mrs. Annie Nathan Meyer's critique of "Recent Landscapes and American Painters." Among the paintings discussed by Mrs. Meyer are J. Alden Weir's "Windham, Connecticut;" Ochtman's "Autumn Sunrise;" "On the James River," F. W. Kost; Tryon's "Pasture Lands;" Murphy's "Indian Summer;" and Walker's "Sheep at Pasture." Mr. Percy Bate writes, in the *Magazine of Art* for May, an appreciation of some recent Glasgow paintings. Reproductions of paintings by Henderson, Allan, Fulton, Stevenson, Walton, Cameron, Lavery, and Roche accompany the text. The same periodical has an essay on "Émile Gallé: A Master in Glass," by Prince Karagevitch. In the *International Studio* for May there is an illustrated paper on "Japanese Flower Painting," by the editor, and also a paper on "Modern Russian Art," treating of some of the leading painters of Moscow.

Literary Themes in the Magazines.—The second installment of the Ruskin letters to Charles Eliot Norton, in the *Atlantic* for June, covers the years 1857-59, and affords a new revelation, not only of Ruskin's personal life in those years, but also of the remarkable in-

timacy that existed for so long a period between him and his American correspondent. Allusions in these letters to such matters as John Brown's raid, and other events of current history, show that Ruskin depended, in no small degree, on Professor Norton for his information on American affairs. In the *Lamp* for May there is a pertinent inquiry by Mr. J. M. Bulloch, "Has England Ceased to Sing?" This writer refers to the pessimistic views of Alfred Austin, but finds much ground for encouragement in the fact that the most popular London morning newspaper published Maeterlinck's essays, showing that interest in the higher kinds of poetry is far from defunct. "Modern Japanese Women Writers,"—a new subject in American magazines,—is treated in the May *Critic* by Yone Noguchi. This article concludes with the comment that, while there are one hundred poetesses in Japan, no one of them has achieved any distinction. There are many translators, and some essayists and novelists, among the Japanese women of to-day. "The Last Days of the Stoddards" is an interesting personal sketch by Earle Hooker Eaton in the *Reader Magazine* for May.

Journalism and Journalists.—Mr. H. W. Boynton discusses "The Literary Aspect of Journalism" in the June *Atlantic*. Whatever may be thought of the ephemeral character of the journalist's work, Mr. Boynton at least shows that in this country the responsibility devolved on the journalist to afford a vast population its only opportunity of contact with literature is not to be despised. Mr. Boynton emphasizes the influence of daily journalism on American magazines, holding that the latter are to be distinguished from the better daily journals only by exclusion of detail and modification of method. In the May number of the *Bookman* there is a suggestive paper on "The European Correspondent," by Edward A. Dithmar. This writer says that there is a field for "the intelligent, clear-minded American" in Europe, who should be equipped to hunt out, for us, the facts that we need to know. We are unwittingly influenced by the reactionary influences surrounding the sources of much of our European news. Then, too, as Mr. Dithmar points out, the whole governmental system of Europe is frequently opposed to the dissemination of the news.

Western History.—In this month's *Atlantic*, Prof. F. J. Turner concludes his series of "The Diplomatic Contest for the Mississippi." The most notable feature of *Scribner's* for June is the publication of a series of letters written by Lewis and Clark, the explorers, just one hundred years ago, the originals of which have only recently been discovered. These include a letter from Lewis offering Clark a partnership in the trans-continental expedition, Clark's letter of acceptance, addressed both to President Jefferson and to Lewis, and a letter from Lewis to Clark expressing his gratification at the latter's acceptance, together with extracts from

the note-books of Clark, long missing, and original drawings made by the explorer. Mr. Reuben Gold Thwaites accompanies these historical finds with an explanatory article.

Our Middle West.—The West has a prominent place in some of the illustrated magazines for June. Various characteristics of the group of States commonly designated as the middle West are described and analyzed by Mr. Henry Loomis Nelson, under the title "In Medias Res," in *Harper's*. The semi-centennial anniversary of the Kansas-Nebraska bill is the occasion of a survey of "Fifty Years of Kansas," by Mr. William Allen White, in the *World's Work*. "Indianapolis, the City of Homes," is a very clever description of the live middle-Western town, by Meredith Nicholson, in the June *Atlantic*.

Mormonism.—Most important among the group of articles which afford ground for designating the June *Century* as a "Western number" is Mr. Ray Stannard Baker's paper on "The Vitality of Mormonism,"—a remarkable study of American civilization under the peculiar conditions of an irrigated country. Apropos of the Smoot investigation at Washington, there is an article on "Mormon Church Influence in Politics" in the *World's Work*.

Various Subjects in the Theological Reviews.—In the *American Journal of Theology* (Chicago), the Rev. Henry A. Redpath writes on "A New Theory as to the Use of the Divine Names in the Pentateuch;" Prof. A. H. Sayce, of Oxford, on "The Legal Code of Babylonia;" Samuel H. Bishop on "A Point of View for the Study of Religion," and the Rev. William Dewar on "What Is a Miracle?" In the *Homiletic Review* for May, Prof. Francis G. Peabody discusses the "Social Teaching of Jesus Christ;" Mr. Eugene Parsons the "Decline of the Religious Spirit in the Younger British Poets;" Prof. George William Knox "The Place of Authority in Religion;" Dr. Joseph Dunn Burrill "Recent Archaeological Finds and Their Biblical Significance." In the *Bibliotheca Sacra* (Oberlin, Ohio), Dr. John Bascom writes on "Addenda of Psychology;" Dr. Charles H. Oliphant on "Authority and the Pulpit;" Dr. Henry M. Whitney on "The Latest Translation of the Bible;" Prof. F. H. Foster on "Park's Theological System;" and Dr. Edward Merrins on "Biblical Epidemics of Bubonic Plague." The current number of the *Princeton Theological Review* contains the following articles: "Thomas Aquinas and Leo XIII.," by Dr. David S. Schaff; "The Apostle Paul and the Second Advent," by Dr. Timothy D. Darling; "Thomas Cromwell," by Dr. Paul van Dyke; "Intuitive Perception," by Dr. Henry C. Minton; "The Story of the Cumberland Presbyterian Church," by Dr. Edward B. Hodge; and "The Proposed Union with the Cumberland Presbyterians," by Dr. Benjamin B. Warfield.

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

An Anecdote of Skobelleff.—In his editorial chronicle on the war, the editor of the *Bibliothèque Universelle* has some severe things to say about the false reports which are circulated from St. Petersburg. The Russian people, he says, are kept in absolute ignorance of the fact that their navy is being defeated by the

Japanese. He cannot condemn this too severely, and in the course of his remarks he recalls the fact (he insists that it is a fact) of the peasant belief that General Skobelleff, the hero of the Turkish and the Turkestan wars, who died some twenty years ago, is still living in prison. This legend, he declares, "is quite character-

istic of the Russian people's notions of geography and the relation of Russia to other powers." He gives the legend as follows:

Mikhail Dmitrich Skobelieff once sought the Little Father, the Czar, and said, "Permit me, I pray you, oh, Sire, to go to war against the Germans." But the Little Father replied, "No, General, I will not permit you to fight against the Germans, for they are our good

where more than twenty thousand workmen are employed, most of whom have their families with them. They work from six to seven months a year (the other five months the winter is too severe to permit work), at from twelve to fifteen hours a day, and lodge in the most miserable of barracks, on planks or in little cabins, damp, cold, and dirty. They are forced to buy the necessities of life from company stores, at an exorbitant price; and if they are sick, they are attended by some few ignorant infirmity employees, with no books or libraries, and no schools for the children. The young generation grows up in ignorance, and the fathers try to forget their miseries in drink.

The First Europeans in Japan.—Señhor Antonio de Campos Junior, a Portuguese writer, contributes to *La Revue* an historical sketch of "The First Europeans in Japan"—the Portuguese. He points out how, in 1541, the Mikado's empire (the Jih-pun, as the Portuguese learned from the Chinese) was visited by three Portuguese merchants, who sailed from one of the small towns of Cochin China, along the Chinese coast, and were wrecked during a storm on the shores of Kagoshima, the capital of the Daimo of Satsuma, in southern Japan. Eight years afterward, the Spanish Jesuit, Francis Xavier, under the protection of the Portuguese, landed at Kagoshima and began the work of Christianization in Japan. This writer traces the history of the relations between Europe and Japan up to 1809, when the Portuguese were expelled through the intrigues, he declares, of the Dutch merchants.

Hand Labor in China.—In the great centers of population in China, according to the *Mercure* (Paris), the working day is from ten to twelve hours. Wages are very low. Stone-breakers earn seven and one-half cents a day; rope-makers, thirteen cents, with board and lodging; brass-workers, forty-four cents; shoe-makers, fourteen cents, with board and lodging; printers, twenty-two cents, with eating only; mechanics, two dollars and twenty cents a week. In the cotton factories, even the larger ones, it is rare that one can find workmen whose wages exceed ten cents for men and five cents for children. The workers in the transportation service in the cities are even more poorly paid. The vehicles are even carried on the shoulders of the men or drawn by them. In Hongkong, the earnings of a coolie engaged in street transportation amounts to seventeen cents per day.

A French Opinion of England in Tibet.—While Europe and America are silently watching the great duel in the far East, there is one power, says a writer who signs himself "Tcheng," in the *Monde Illustré* (Paris), which steadily pursues its century-long policy, and we are "not sure that we can admire—or suspect—sufficiently the profundity of English diplomacy which has so well foreseen the present war and is using it for British advantage in Tibet." All the reasons alleged by the Indian viceroy are regarded by this writer as mere pretexts. It means colonial expansion pure and simple to him, and he prophesies that the echoes of Colonel Younghusband's rifles will be heard for a long time in Lassa, in Peking, and in St. Petersburg.

Hard Life of a Siberian Miner.—It is a dreary picture of the miner's life in Siberia presented by A. Kolytscheff in the *Russkaye Bogstivo* (St. Petersburg). In speaking of the education of these miners, this writer refers to the mines in the vicinity of Tomsk,

is the chief scene of operations at the moment, and the writer ("Peregrinator") has a good deal of interesting material for his readers to mark and digest. Russian manufacturers find it more profitable to get beyond their own borders, so they are pushing on toward Persia, and Russia is thereby gaining a stronger and stronger hold on that country. Furthermore, Persia borrows from Russia, and her indebtedness at the present time is 34,000,000 rubles. In order to arrest Russian incursions in Asia, Great Britain might try to make Persia another buffer state, but this would cost quite £200,000 a year, against the annuity of £150,000 now paid to the Ameer of Afghanistan. "Peregrinator" speaks of a Russian treaty with Tibet, concluded some months ago, but the article was probably written prior to the advance of the British expedition, which he would doubtless regard as another move in the game of Britain versus Russia in the middle East.

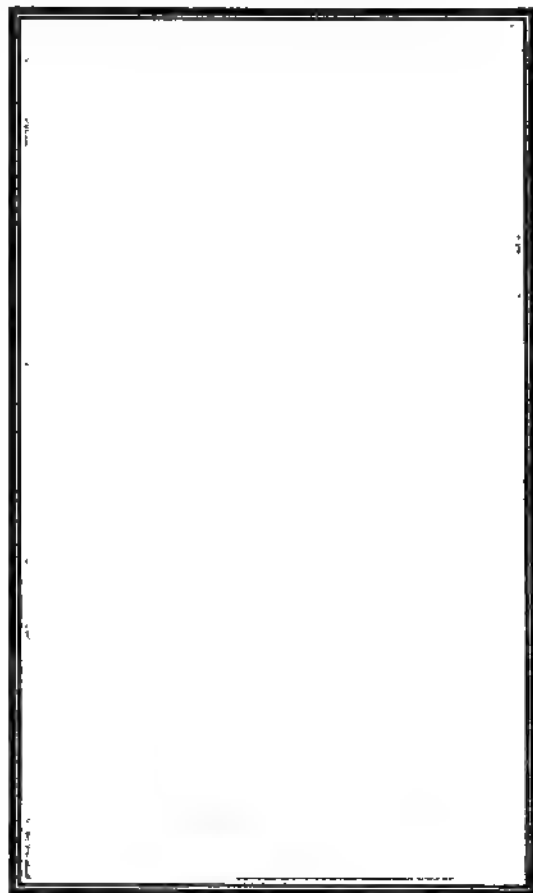
Pius X. and Church Music.—An appreciation of the new Pope's attitude toward church music, by a writer who signs himself "Valetta," appears in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome). Pope Pius X., says this writer, has given the *coup de grâce* to the "decadent" religious music of the day.

"The theater has at last been separated from the sanctuary; no reminiscence of theatrical *motif* is to haunt the services of the temple, although the *concerto* proper is not banned." The writer reminds us that the struggle between florid ecclesiastical music and the *canto fermo*, Gregorian and Palestrinian music, has been going on for a long time in France and Germany, as well as in Italy. "As late as 1884, the Congregation of Rites published a 'regulation concerning music' which was approved of by Pope Leo XIII. This pronouncement seemed calculated to remedy the evil; but, practically, its provisions came to naught, and no reformation or return to primitive usages resulted. The issue was smoothed over by a hollow compromise, the *status quo* continued, and but little change was made. In 1894, new regulations were issued, but these were little more than amendments to the original regulations of 1884, and were calculated rather to favor those whose interest it was to have no changes made." Pius X. has always, however, favored musical dignity and simplicity. When he was Patriarch of Venice, the music in the basilica of St. Mark reached a lofty level of artistic dignity under Lorenzo Perosi, who is at present chapel master of the Sistine. No one knows better than Pius X. how important a matter is the music of the Church, and, while apparently indisposed to exercise coercion in the carrying out of his wishes, it is not likely that his recent instruction will prove a dead letter."

Women in Contemporary Industry.—Under this title, Professor Brunhes, of Fribourg, and his wife have an article (the first of a series) in the *Rivista Internazionale* (Rome), which shows the result of a vast amount of research. The aim of the articles is first to prove from statistics the ever-increasing number of women workers in factories and workshops, and secondly, to discuss "what solutions are possible to-day in order to lead woman back toward the moral and social ideal of Christianity, and to allow her to fulfill her essential and providential social mission of motherhood, of a mother who moves and educates her children, while governing, maintaining, and, we even say, creating, the true domestic hearth."

An International Rousseau Society.—There has just been formed, in Geneva, a committee which will arrange for the creation of a Jean Jacques Rousseau Society, on the same general lines as the Shakespeare Society, in England, the Goethe Society, in Germany, and the Society for the Study of Rabelais, in Paris. The promoters of this association, according to the *Bibliothèque Universelle*, desire to make it international in its scope, as Rousseau belongs to universal literature. Our aim, these gentlemen announce, is to preserve the history and criticism of the works and life of Rousseau. They ask the municipality of Geneva to take the initiative by establishing a Rousseau library, to which shall finally be added a bibliography of the famous Jean Jacques.

Patriotic Queen Isabella.—The late Queen Isabella II. of Spain was kept from the throne of her fathers, according to the *Ilustracion Espanola y Amer-*



THE LAST PICTURE OF THE LATE QUEEN ISABELLA OF SPAIN.

icano (Madrid), by "the passion of politics, the ingratitude of men, and the mistakes of history." Her life was one of change and sadness. She was patriotic, magnanimous, and profoundly religious. In personal appearance, she looked like a great "royal mother of

some splendid singer; and her manner was graciousness itself."

Foreign Students in France.—During the year 1908, according to the *Revue Scientifique*, there was a considerable increase in the number of foreign students in French universities, considering all the faculties—sciences, medicine, and *belles-lettres*. It is interesting to note that the larger increase was in the number of women students. In all, the foreign students in the universities in the republic formed more than a quarter of the entire attendance. Considered by nationalities, the largest representation was from Russia, the next largest from Turkey, then from Roumania, and then from Bulgaria. There were five American students in the School of Medicine at Paris, and six in the School of Science.

Railroads in Europe in 1908.—About five thousand miles of railroad were built in Europe in 1908. Germany constructed more mileage than any other European country. Next came Russia, then France, then Austria, then Great Britain and Ireland. It is significant to note, says the *Revue Statistique*, that, with the exceptions of Turkey, Bulgaria, and Roumania, Great Britain constructed less mileage than any other European country. This journal adds, as an interesting bit of information, that the highest railroad in Europe is that of Goernergrat, in Switzerland, which attains an altitude of three thousand and nineteen meters, just seventeen hundred and sixty-one meters lower, it admits, than the highest railroad in the world, —the Oroya line, in Peru.

The German Navy.—The chief feature of the *National Review* (London) for May is Mr. H. W. Wilson's elaborate and alarmist article on "The Menace of the German Navy," the menace, according to Mr. Wilson, lying in the fact that Germany might snatch a success over England's dispersed fleet and follow it up with a military attack. The German fleet already has an advantage over the British, owing to its policy of concentration. Mr. Wilson says that British naval organization is markedly behind that of Germany. One lesson of the Russo-Japanese War is that the party that takes the initiative and attacks resolutely has an immense advantage, and another is that concentration of armaments is essential.

Germany's Chemical Industry.—Mr. O. Eltzbacher describes, in the *Contemporary Review* (London), what he calls the most vigorous and successful of German industries—the chemical industry—which, unlike all other German industries, has almost done with-

out the fostering of a protective tariff. Germany has a monopoly in the manufacture of certain chemical preparations. About four-fifths of the dyes consumed in the world are made in Germany. The exports of chemical products amount to well over one hundred million dollars a year, and the industry takes fifth place among Germany's great exporting industries. About one hundred and seventy thousand men and women are employed in it, and so high are the wages paid that strikes in the trade are very rare. The importance of the industry to Germany lies not so much in its large exports as in the immense resources it has created,—for instance, the sugar-beet and the indigo industries.

Probable Cost of the War.—A French military writer, who signs himself "Commandant X," contributes to *La Revue* a study of the losses in men and money in the great wars of history, in order to come to some estimate of the probable destruction of life and property in the present war. The Crimean War, he says, cost Russia \$700,000,000, or \$25,000,000 per month; it cost the French about an equal sum, and the English somewhat less; the Franco-Prussian War of 1870 cost the Prussians \$256,000,000, or \$49,000,000 per month; the loss of the French (in addition to the territory) was \$2,800,000,000 or \$31,000,000 per month. England spent in the Boer War \$1,212,000,000, or \$38,000,000 per month; in the war with China, Japan spent \$84,000,000, or \$10,000,000 per month; and the Chinese, in addition to the cost of conducting the war, paid an indemnity of \$146,000,000. He does not attempt any definite estimate of the cost of the present war, but, assuming that four hundred thousand men will be engaged on each side, he prophesies that a total of from eighty thousand to ninety thousand men will be put *hors de combat*; that is to say, that from twenty thousand to twenty-five thousand will be killed, and the rest incapacitated from wounds or disease.

The Yellow Peril and the White Peril.—A rather hysterical article, calling upon Europe to unite for protection against the "yellow peril," of Asia and the "white peril" of America, appears in the *Revue Générale* (Brussels). The author, Paul Decker, can find no comfort in the situation in the far East. The world is bound to lose, whichever wins, he says. If Russia be victorious, we will see the preponderance of absolutism and a reign of force; if Russia be defeated, we must submit to the ambition of Japan, which will be supplemented, on the other side of the Pacific, by the supremacy of America, "united and developed by its natural strength, and organized for the final struggle with Europe."

SCIENCE IN THE FOREIGN PERIODICALS.

Science and Marriage.—Dr. Cazalis, one of the best known of French physicians, who is also a close student of social questions, has sent a communication to the Academy of Medicine of France demanding that it make public "clear, simple, precise instructions" for the benefit of the French people on the subject of the necessary qualifications for proper and happy marriage. These instructions, according to the account given in the *Revue Universelle*, should pay special attention to the dangers from alcoholism, syphilis, and

tuberculosis. These instructions, Dr. Cazalis believes, should be printed on every marriage certificate and on every soldier's enlistment paper. The Academy of Medicine has appointed a commission to study the matter thoroughly and to present a report.

Automobiles in Madagascar.—It has been demonstrated by the French colonial government in Madagascar that the automobile may be made of inestimable benefit in new countries for the transportation of bag-

gage and mail. Several years ago, General Galliéne, conqueror and now governor-general of Madagascar, established an automobile service for the transportation of mail between Mahatsara and Tananarivo, the capital. Despite enormous difficulties due to climate and the wildness of the country, and difficulties of installation which are almost incredible, the service has proved a complete success. According to the *Official Journal of Madagascar*, the service has now been running with absolute regularity for the past seven months (the report is dated January 1, 1904). In the carrying of the mail during the seven months, the automobiles covered a distance of 46,000 kilometers, transporting 106 tons of mail, in addition to 185 passengers and seven tons of baggage. The cost of maintaining the service amounts, approximately, to \$18,000 annually.

Coal on the Trans-Siberian Railroad.—The recent discovery of important coal deposits in both European and Asiatic Russia, says *Nature* (Paris), has permitted the substitution of coal for wood on the locomotives of the Trans-Siberian Railroad. At present, on that portion of the line from Tchiliabinsk to Irkutsk, coal is burned. The transportation of coal, however, from the deposits is still necessary for a great distance from the fuel beds.

The Sanitation of a Continent.—A writer in the *Revue de Paris* considers the history of concerted action on the part of the governments of Europe for the sanitary protection of the continent. Already, he says, the "Sanitary Defense of Europe," organized by physicians and diplomats, has succeeded in accomplishing two great sanitary reforms,—the "disinfection" of the pilgrimages to Mecca and the protection of the Persian Gulf from the plague. This system of sanitary protection had three stages in its development: in 1892, Europe fought the cholera in France; in 1893, it made arrangements for complete disinfection in case the plague should penetrate to Europe; in 1894, at Paris, the plague was attacked in its very origin. The Ottoman Empire, he concludes, has always resisted the just demands of Europe for sanitary protection.

The Use of Small Water-Courses in France.—The French minister of agriculture is addressing to all the prefects throughout the republic a circular of information and suggestion which will enable the small farmers to make use of the power in their small waterfalls. The circular describes the method by which these small waterfalls may be harnessed to simple and inexpensive but effective electric apparatus (the entire relation between canals, turbines, dynamos, and the distribution problem is described), and the cost of installation is given. It is hoped that small farmers can thus, at a small cost, have their own lighting plant and conduct many of their farm operations more effectively and at a lower cost than heretofore. The *Revue Universelle* discusses this subject at length.

Collective Psychology.—The Dutch review, *De Gids* (Amsterdam), has an exhaustive article on "Collective Psychology,"—that is, the psychology of groups of persons, whether small (as exemplified by a dozen men in a jury box) or large enough to be termed a crowd. The writer distinguishes between the groups, dividing them into castes, classes, associations, and so

forth. In the homogeneous groups, such as castes and political associations, there is a predominating cause for particular expressions of feeling, and there is also a sense of responsibility; whereas in the heterogeneous groups (e.g., the ordinary crowd), the manifestations of sentiment are produced by any cause, and the individuals often follow a lead without being conscious of it. In this latter case of the crowd, there is usually no feeling of responsibility: if there is to be any punishment, or reward, it cannot be allocated to any body as a whole, but must be meted out to some of the heterogeneous elements who may be recognized or arrested among the crowd. Such an article as this shows how prone we are to follow one another like sheep, and how few really strong minds we have among us. Once in a crowd, for instance, we can scarcely prevent ourselves from doing as the rest do, and those who keep cool are the exceptions.

The Story of a Pearl.—In the *Zoologist* for February, Professor McIntosh contributes an article covering not only the life-history of a pearl, but also treating of the methods of collection. Pearls are found in many shellfish, both lamellibranchs and gastropods, but the vast majority of valuable specimens are taken from the so-called pearl oyster, which is collected in various parts of the Indian Ocean. It is found as far east as Japan, and has increased in the Mediterranean since the building of the Suez Canal. Pearl fisheries are also carried on in the Gulf of Mexico, at Panama, and in California. In fresh waters, the mussels produce large numbers of pearls. It is now believed that pearls are due to the presence of a minute parasite—one of the fluke-worms—which, in the mature condition, in the case of the British pearls, lives in the intestines of the eider duck and the scoter. The eggs from these mature worms are carried into the mouth of a common shellfish, pass into the alimentary canal, and through the circulatory system reach the blood-vessels of the mantle. There they become encysted, and divide into another generation known as *cercariæ*. The *cercariæ* escape, and find their way into the mussels between the mantle and the shell. After coming to rest, they form the center about which the pearl is secreted. The work of Professor Herdman shows that the pearls of the Ceylonese oysters are formed by a similar worm. The adult of this worm is an elasmobranch fish, and the late larval stages are in a filefish, which eats pearl oysters. A similar parasite has been found in the case of the pearl-forming oysters in the region of the Gambia. The question is raised whether shellfish may not be infected artificially with the parasites, and thus pearl-formation be stimulated.

The Sleeping Sickness.—The "sleeping sickness" is treated in *La Science au XXth Siècle*. This disease is confined to the west coast of tropical Africa. Various theories of its cause have been advanced, but it is now known that it is produced by a blood parasite,—a trypanosome. This is conveyed to the human body by the bite of a fly. The disease attacks all nationalities and all ages, and while the patient may live for some months, or even two years, seems to be almost invariably fatal in its results. Remedies have had very little effect. There is hope that a serum may be prepared which will be effective, but, so far, experiments to this end have not been successful.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

BIOGRAPHY AND AUTOBIOGRAPHY.

Herbert Spencer's autobiography is one of the books for which the world has been rather curiously waiting; but, now that the world has it, reader and critic alike must confess to being somewhat disappointed. The autobiography contains a great amount of very valuable material, but no good literature. Moreover, this material is dull, and rather incoherently handled. As a biography, it is candid and conscientious; but no one lives in it, least of all the subject. He makes out his life to be just what his great passion impressed on all his philosophy,—a generalization. In his own preface, written in 1894, the philosopher observes: "In the genesis of a system of thought, the emotional nature is

a large factor,—perhaps as large a factor as the intellectual nature." And yet there is very little of the emotional, or even of the human, about this natural history of the great philosopher. Mr. Spencer explains that he never had any instruction in English, and begs indulgence on this account. Many other unkindnesses of nature and circumstances had to be—and were—overcome by this giant mind. He tells

HERBERT SPENCER.

of how he had to use morphia to gain a few hours' sleep—even under the balmy skies of Italy. There are bits of conceit,—rather unlovely,—which crop out here and there, showing that the philosopher took himself quite seriously. He discusses his abandonment of Christianity at the age of eighteen quite calmly, but, in the last chapter of the book, written four years later than the bulk of it, he shows the mellowing influence of time and the approach of old age. The truth or falsity of any particular religious doctrine, he admits, is not the main question,—that men's conduct must be controlled by some theological belief and priestly authority, that Christianity has not altogether failed, and that if we dissent from the solutions offered by religion we must join in the wish that solutions could be found. Among the most interesting features of the two volumes, "An Autobiography by Herbert Spencer" (Appletons), are the estimates of distinguished contemporaries. Carlyle's nature was chaotic, intellectually and morally; Buckle was mentally top-heavy, and so on. Of his own early career, Mr. Spencer writes frankly and fully. His work as an engineer and afterward as a journalist he characterizes as a false start, but he admits the value of the training he received from both experiences. The volumes are well printed, and contain several portraits of the Spencer family.

The two-volume "Life of John A. Andrew," the famous war governor of Massachusetts, has been written by Henry Greenleaf Pearson (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Governor Andrew was the central figure of so many dramatic scenes before and during the Civil War that his career remains to this day a national possession, although a generation has passed since his official work was completed. Outside of Massachusetts, Governor Andrew is remembered for his connection with the John Brown episode, for his later contest with General Butler, and for the part that he so nobly sustained in equipping Massachusetts regiments for action at the outbreak of the War.

GOVERNOR ANDREW.

"The Life of Frederick William Farrar," by his son, Reginald A. Farrar (Crowell), must be counted as one of the notable biographies of the year. In writing Dean Farrar's life, his son has been aided by friends and colleagues of the dean, who have contributed reminiscences of those periods during which they were closely associated with him. The dean's own book, "Men I Have Known," conveys some idea of his large circle of acquaintance, and his

THE LATE DEAN FARRAR.

office as chaplain to the Queen made him one of the most conspicuous pulpit figures of the last generation in England.

SOCIOLOGY, ECONOMICS, AND POLITICS.

Prof. N. S. Shaler's new book, "The Neighbor" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is a study of human relations, with special reference to race prejudice. It is interesting to have the opinion of Professor Shaler, who is a native Kentuckian and a veteran of the Civil War, on the question of negro suffrage. Professor Shaler declares that any system which makes the limitation of the suffrage depend on race would be in the highest degree destructive to our institutions. While he is in favor of the changes in the constitutions of the Southern States which have limited the franchise by educational or property qualifications, he regards the purpose of dis-

franchising the ignorant negroes, while leaving the equally ignorant whites in possession of the suffrage, as "so far a restoration of the tribal system which it has been the task of our commonwealth to overthrow." Professor Shaler characterizes the "grandfather clause" as a miserable subterfuge, and expresses his shame that such a device should have been invented by Americans.

The Rev. Nicholas Paine Gilman, author of works on profit-sharing and other economic themes, has written

a more comprehensive treatise than has heretofore appeared in English on "Methods of Industrial Peace" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). In this work, the whole subject of labor unions, as well as employers' associations, conciliation in labor disputes, boards of conciliation and arbitration, and the less familiar principle of "collective bargaining" and the trade agreement, are discussed at length. There is a separate

REV. N. P. GILMAN.

chapter on the incorporation of industrial unions, and some of the results of the investigation carried on by the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission are here set forth. The volume as a whole digests the most important information presented in recent official reports and in other authoritative publications.

Treatises dealing with our lately acquired dependencies from the standpoint of jurisprudence are by no means numerous. The work in this field of such scholars as Dr. Leo S. Rowe is worthy of every possible encouragement. We are glad to note that Dr. Rowe's studies as a member of the Commission to Revise and Compile the Laws of Porto Rico, and as chairman of the Porto Rican Commission, have resulted in a book,—"The United States and Porto Rico" (Longmans),—which cannot fail to prove of great value to all who have occasion to inform themselves concerning the Spanish colonial legal system as modified since the American occupation of the island. Dr. Rowe has also included in his book a very useful discussion of those problems in civil government which confronted the American administration from the first. The reader will gain from the work a broader conception and a fuller appreciation of the ability displayed by the representatives of the Washington Government in approaching these new and extremely difficult problems.

The papers and proceedings of the last annual meeting of the American Economic Association are published in two parts, the first part containing, in addition to Professor Seligman's presidential address on "Some Aspects of Economic Law" and President Alderman's address of welcome, papers on "Sugar," "Rice," "Cotton," "Tobacco," and "The Utilization of Southern Wastes," together with a valuable discussion of "The Relation Between Rent and Interest." In the second part are contained the papers and discussions on "State and Corporate Finance," "The Trust Problem," and "Sociology and History."

The latest volume in the "American Commonwealths"

series (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is Mr. Frank B. Sanborn's "New Hampshire." Mr. Sanborn writes with appreciation of the colony where his oldest English ancestors cast in their lot, more than two hundred and sixty years ago, and where all his latest ancestors have been born. In his account of the early colonial conflicts with aristocratic types of government, Mr. Sanborn has been able to make use of important English documents discovered within the past half-century.

The publishers of John Graham Brooks' remarkable and valuable work, "The Social Unrest" (Macmillan), have just brought out a paper-bound edition. "The Social Unrest," which has already been reviewed in these pages, is a work which is more than readable. It ought to be read.

Some years ago, Dan Beard's "Moonlight and Six Feet of Romance" appeared. It proved popular, but the firm which published it failed, and the first edition was withdrawn from sale. The trend of events in American politics and economics, however, have made a new edition possible (Albert Brande, Trenton, N. J.). To this new edition of this well-told story of a man who "sees things as they really are" Louis F. Post, editor of the *Public*, has written a strong introduction. There is a wall, says Mr. Beard, in his "foreword," called Vested Rights, "which prevents nature's sun from shining on our fellow-men; but, thank God! good workmen are busy at its foundation; it is already undermined, and must fall." The illustrations to the new edition are strikingly appropriate.

EUROPE AND ASIA—ESPECIALLY JAPAN.

Much more than ice-free ports in the Pacific and the domination of Korea is involved in the present war between Japan and Russia. The opening years of the new century are witnessing one more of the periodical attempts of the white races to conquer, or at least to dominate, the vast Asiatic continent. Alexander of Macedon, the leaders of the Roman Republic and Empire, the Crusaders, all made great invasions of Asia,—and all failed. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, Russia and England began to stir in the old direction. Impelled by some unexplained impulse, these two Occidental peoples seized the vast mysterious north and the almost equally vast and more mysterious south of the oldest continent. To-day, a greater movement on the far East has begun, now, however, with a clear and conscious motive. Mr. Meredith Townsend, in his fascinating book "Asia and Europe" (Putnam), states this motive.

"The European peoples are tired of the poverty in which, despite their considerable advance in civilization and their immense advance in applied science, their masses are still condemned to live. The white races, in obedience to some law of which they know nothing, increase with amazing rapidity; and in Europe, which is not a very fertile continent, there is not enough work to go around. There is uneasiness everywhere, suffering in all cities, strange outbursts of envy and malice against the rich in all countries except Great Britain. The rulers reign in constant dread of explosions from below, the subjects are penetrated with the idea that agriculture is played out, and that the 'money' which is the foundation of comfort can only come from a vast development of trade. Both are told by their experts that great markets can only be found in Asia, where the majority of the human race has elected to dwell, and where it has aggregated itself into masses so great that commerce with them must always produce a maximum of profit."

But, though the West may reduce the East to tempo-

rary vassalage of a commercial nature, there are inherent differences between Europe and Asia which forbid one of these continents to conquer the other permanently. The whole method of life, and all the systems of thought, are different. This difference is strongly emphasized in Mr. Townsend's book, and somehow, when the reader has laid it down, he has a higher opinion of Asiatics, an increased respect for those wonderfully old and wonderfully wise peoples who refuse to measure up to almost all of our Occidental standards, and yet, "if it be the end of systems of life to produce contented acquiescence, the Asiatic systems must be held to have succeeded."

A scholarly and thought-provoking essay is "The Political Ideas of Modern Japan," by Karl Kiyoshi Kawakami, which has been recently brought out in book form by the establishment of Shokwabo, in Tokio. It was originally prepared as a "degree thesis" for the State University of Iowa, but its author, Mr. Kawakami, gives us an excellent, clear account of the development of Japan, politically and economically, out of feudalism into modern life. Especially interesting are his chapters on the origin of the Japanese people and their national characteristics.

In his book "Japan To-Day" (Lippincott), Dr. James A. B. Scherer has aimed to give a kaleidoscopic view of modern Japan. "The empire of the Mikado is so notoriously complex that I purposely give a diversified appearance, and leave the reader to unify the subject if he can. I offer a sketch-book of views of one of the most interesting countries of the world." "Japan is the key to the Orient, but no one has ever found the key to Japan." Dr. Scherer has lived for many years in Japan, and was formerly teacher of English in the government school at Saga. He speaks Japanese, and his work is built up from original sources. It closes with a chapter entitled "The Gates of Asia; or, The Larger Meaning of the War."

A volume which claims to "answer more questions about Japan than any other book yet published" has been compiled by Esther Singleton, under the general title of "Japan, Described by Great Writers" (Dodd, Mead & Co.). It comprises reprints of accounts in English and translations, and the whole field of description and history is covered in studies by such well-known writers as Sir Edwin Arnold, Pierre Loti, Lafcadio Hearn, Arthur Dósy, Eliséé Réclus, Yoshitaro Yamashita, Judith Gautier, Isabella Bird Bishop, and Mortimer Memphis. The book is pleasantly illustrated.

HISTORIES AND MANUALS OF ARCHITECTURE.

A review of domestic architecture from Colonial days to the present has been prepared by Joy Wheeler Dow, under the title "American Renaissance" (William T. Comstock). The author believes that "the best that we have been able to say for ourselves up to the present is that we have always had a sneaking kind of regard for art, and that, when business did not interfere, we have endeavored, after a desultory fashion, to cultivate it." He has the courage of his convictions, for he begins Chapter I. with "The magnificence of the subject." He believes that there is a great future for American architecture, and endeavors, in this volume, to show how much has gradually taken on an originality, which is distinct from the impress of what has survived from past building epochs. The volume is illustrated by ninety half-tone prints. Most of the text originally appeared in the *Architects and Builders'*

Magazine. It is gratifying to realize that, little as we have of great art in building, we really have so much.

A guide-book in architecture which aims to "help the reader acquire, little by little, such an independent knowledge of the essential characteristics of good buildings that he will always enjoy the sight, the memory, or the study of a noble structure without undue anxiety as to whether he is right or wrong" is "How to Judge Architecture" (Baker & Taylor), by Russell Sturgis, whose connection with the leading architectural associations and experiences in public art have made him an acknowledged critic. Mr. Sturgis sets up no absolute standards, but gives reasons in accordance with which the reader may form his own opinions. Plentiful illustrations from early Greek temples and from the great cathedrals of the Middle Ages, supplemented by modern business buildings, emphasize Mr. Sturgis' historical and explanatory outline of architectural history.

A very useful book for the student in classic art is the "Cyclopedia of Works of Architecture in Italy, Greece, and the Levant" (Scribners), edited by William P. Longfellow, late Fellow of the Institute of Architects. This volume seems to be very full and accurate. Architectural interest first, and historical, second, were the tests in its preparation. Historical controversies have been avoided. The orthography of the classical names has been simplified as far as possible, and the illustrations are unusually good.

The third edition of a useful little manual entitled "Easy Lessons, or Stepping-Stones to Architecture," has been issued by the Industrial Publication Company. Thomas Mitchell, the English compiler, characterizes the book as "a series of questions and answers explaining in simple language the principles and progress of architecture from the earliest times." Useful diagrams and pictures accompany the text.

RELIGIOUS AND ETHICAL WORKS.

Dr. A. Lincoln Shute's book, "The Fatherhood of God" (Eaton & Mains), is "the outgrowth of a profound conviction that some one, without further delay, ought to place within reach of the Church universal a full, plain, warm-hearted, logical, scriptural, and evangelically Christian presentation of the glorious doctrine of the Fatherhood of God." Dr. Shute's work is pervaded by a spirit of earnest piety.

In "Man and the Divine Order" (Putnams), Mr. Horatio W. Dresser, author of "The Power of Silence" and "Living by the Spirit," attempts to suggest new thoughts on the relation of man to the universe. The underlying thought of his book he aims to make "constructive idealism."

Dr. S. D. McConnell, rector of All Souls' Church, New York, believes that the many differing conceptions of the Christ held by denominations, and by individuals in the same denomination, not only confuse the religious thought, but result in a wavering conviction as to the definite personality of the Saviour. The Christ of the Eastern Church, he says in his book "Christ" (Macmillan), is not the Christ of the West; the Christ of the Roman mass is not the Christ of the Salvation Army; the Christ of theology is not the Christ of the average pulpit, and none of these is the Christ of poetry, art, and popular thought. Can we find the real Christ? It may be admitted that if Dr. McConnell does not present a positive image, he clarifies our conception by making

us willing to give up some of our beautiful but impossible ideals.

It is a very apt characterization of Jonathan Edwards which Dr. Isaac Crook gives in his little biography: "Jonathan Edwards may seem a man of yesterday, but, both in life and character, he is a man of to-day and all the to-morrows." Dr. Crook's little booklet (Jennings & Pye) is a welcome message from one of the greatest periods of American thought. Jonathan Edwards had other sides than the "hellfire" one, and this biographer has shown them.

Not to demonstrate any truth, but to give expression to a "living, inspiring, dominating faith," which shall show that God is still "the Great Companion" of the human race, Dr. Lyman Abbott has written a connected series of sermon-essays under the title "The Great Companion" (The Outlook Company). They are helpful and thought-nourishing, and are in Dr. Abbott's usual lucid style.

To show that for the past two thousand years "the voice of the Christian preacher has never ceased to be a power in the world" is the purpose of T. Harwood Pattison in his "History of Christian Preaching" (American Baptist Publication Society). The volume is illustrated by twenty portraits of famous preachers, from Martin Luther to Dwight L. Moody. Mr. Pattison is professor of homiletics in the Rochester Theological Seminary. He wields a facile and eloquent pen.

An attempt to outline the "Doctrine of the Church" in the brief space of one hundred and fifteen pages is made by Dr. Revere Franklin Weidner (Revell). The notes are based on the systems of Luthardt and Krauth, and are, of course, only suggestive. Dr. Weidner is professor of theology in the Chicago Lutheran Theological Seminary, and is the author of many works on ecclesiology.

"The Things Which Remain," is the title of an address to young ministers by Bishop Daniel A. Goodsell, of the Methodist Episcopal Church (Cincinnati: Jennings & Pye). The author discusses the question "How much Christian doctrine will still remain, though much of the most radical criticism be accepted?"

Twenty character studies of "Typical Elders and Deacons" (Funk & Wagnalls) are presented by Dr. James M. Campbell (Hamish Mann). The typical deacon of the modern novel, he says, "is a man of small caliber, something of a sneak, very much of a hypocrite. Of manly, noble, qualities he is utterly destitute." It is to repudiate this "wicked, senseless caricature of an honorable class of men" that these sketches have been written. It is certainly to be hoped that all deacons are (or will hereafter be) up to the standard portrayed by Dr. Campbell.

"The Spark in the Clod" (American Unitarian Association), by Jabez T. Sunderland, is an attempt to answer the questions "Is the doctrine of evolution true? Is it hostile to religion? Does it compel changes in religious belief? If so, what are some of the more important of those changes?" The answers are from a religious, particularly a Unitarian, standpoint.

"The Christian Conversationalist" (Baptist Publication Society) is a collection of helps to a clear understanding of the Christian doctrine, cast in the form of questions and answers, with many references to biblical passages. It has been compiled by Rufus Washington Weaver, Th.D.

Dr. I. K. Funk, editor of the Standard Dictionary, has written a brief study of the probability, signifi-

cance, and character of a second coming of Christ, under the title "The Next Step in Evolution" (Funk & Wagnalls). The study originally appeared as an introduction to a revival of George Croly's novel, "Salathiel," rechristened "Tarry, Thou, Till I Come." Dr. Funk believes that Christ comes the second time "into men's

vision by lifting them up into his plane of spiritual comprehension," just as he came the first time into men's vision "by coming on the plane of their senses."

An unknown Italian writer in the fourteenth century penned the "Life of Saint Mary Magdalen." This work has been translated by Valentina Hawtry (John Lane), and Vernon Lee has written a sympathetic

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introduction to the English edition, which is illustrated with reproductions of the Magdalen as conceived by the great masters of painting. The story is one of the Italian devotional romances of the Middle Ages, dealing with the relations of Jesus with the family of Lazarus, whose sister Mary is here identified with the Magdalen. Except for the account of the Passion which forms the nucleus, the story is, says Vernon Lee, "a perfect tissue of inventions. Indeed, the novelist explains very simply that he is narrating, not how he knows of a certainty that things did happen, but how it pleases him to think that they might have happened." The style is exquisite.

"The Higher Realism" (Jennings & Pye), by Duston Kemble, is an elaboration of some rather original conceptions in philosophy by the author. His conclusion is that there are three stages of intellect,—(1) naïveté, giving rise to myth and poetry; (2) materialism, which cultivates industry, politics, art, and science; and (3) spiritual faith, in which the soul "sees the moral, the eternal, and the divine as realities closely and constantly related to our human life."

A helpful, simply written essay on the development of a normal mind "From Agnosticism to Theism" (James H. West Company) is the latest effort of Rev. Charles F. Dole, author of "The Theology of Civilization and 'The Religion of a Gentleman.'" He holds no brief for theism, but tells how he came to accept it. The parable at the end of the little essay is charming and convincing.

A systematic statement of theological tenets is contained in the little "Handbook of Christian Doctrine," by Henry C. Graves, D.D. (Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society), which is based upon the larger "Manual of Christian Theology," by Alvah Hovey, D.D. The work is adapted to class-room use.

Prof. Edward Caldwell Moore (theology, Harvard) has gathered his Lowell Lectures on the relation of the New Testament Canon and the Christian Church into a volume under the title "The New Testament in the Christian Church" (Macmillan). In these lectures, he aims to give the results of the labors of theological scholars during the past fifteen years in the study of the New Testament Canon, comparing the development

of the Canon, the organization of the Church for government, and the Rule of Faith. The volume takes a place in the list of theological works worth doing. Professor Moore treats his subject in the calm, judicious way of the scholar reading history.

"The Messages of the Psalmists" (Scribners) is an arrangement of the Psalms in their natural grouping, freely rendered in paraphrase, by Prof. John E. McFadyen, of Knox College, Toronto. Comparatively slight attention is given to critical discussions, since an appreciation of the grandeur and beauty of the Psalms is possible without a minute knowledge of the critical problems involved, but the methods employed in the compilation are scholarly throughout.

An idiomatic translation into every-day English from the original new Greek Testament has been made by Dr. Richard Francis Weymouth and published (Baker & Taylor) under the title "The Modern Speech New Testament." In his preface, Dr. Weymouth declares that his work is in no sense a revision, but is a *bona fide* translation from the resultant Greek Testament, and that, while it is not his ambition to supplant the versions in general use, he hopes that this translation will contribute "some materials that may yet be built into the far grander edifice of a new and satisfactory English Bible."

A little book entitled "God's Living Oracle" (The Baker & Taylor Company) contains the Exeter Hall lectures on the Bible delivered last year in London by the Rev. Arthur T. Pierson, D.D. The author's point of view as an orthodox defender of the Scriptures is well known.

In "The Temples of the Orient and Their Message" (Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Company) we have a well-informed summary of what has been made known by recent investigations concerning the rites of pre-Christian forms of theistic worship. The book is especially rich in the lore of ancient Nippur, the earliest identified seat of religious worship in the world.

"The Beauty of Wisdom" is the title of a compilation of daily readings made by the Rev. James De Normandie (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). These readings are intended for the use of individuals, families, and schools, and are selected from the Bible, Plato, Euripides, Confucius, Xenophon, Cicero, Montaigne, and various other classics. One distinctive purpose, on the part of the compiler, has been "to revive, if possible, some form of family service, grown often so formal, so undevout, or, more commonly, entirely given up."

In his "New Light on the Life of Jesus" (Scribners), Prof. Charles A. Briggs sets forth the results of his latest studies of the New Testament. Most of the questions discussed in this volume center in the order of Christ's ministry and of associated events. The methods employed in the investigation are, of course, those of the "higher criticism."

Two discourses by Dr. Emil G. Hirsch,—"The Jews and Jesus"

and "Jesus: His Life and Times" (Chicago: The Reform Advocate),—are notable as indicating a point of view not commonly supposed to be held by adherents of the Jewish faith. Rabbi Hirsch indignantly rejects the imputation of hostility to Christianity so freely made by Christian writers in treating of the Jewish attitude toward Jesus. He goes so far as to claim for Judaism virtually all the teachings of Christianity, depicting Jesus himself as a typical Hebrew teacher and prophet of his time.

One of the foremost representatives of German orthodoxy at the present moment is Dr. Hermann Cremer, of Greifswald University. His lectures given before the students of that institution in the summer of 1901, in reply to Professor Harnack, the distinguished representative of the "higher criticism," have been translated into English by Dr. Bernhard Pick, and are now presented in a volume entitled "A Reply to Harnack on the Essence of Christianity" (Funk & Wagnalls Company). Dr. Cremer's distinctive contention is that the essence of Christian truth is to be found, not alone in the teachings of Jesus as given in the four Gospels, but in the writings of the evangelists and apostles which record their various impressions of Jesus and his work.

Dr. Leonard Woolsey Bacon's little volume on "The Congregationalists," in "The Story of the Churches" series (The Baker & Taylor Company), is a model that might well be followed by church historians generally, but we fear that this is too much to expect. We have here the record of what Congregationalism has contributed to the religious life of the American people, and of what the denomination, numerically small though it be, has accomplished for education and for home and foreign missions. Even the casual reader of this impressive history will gather from it some conception of what the Congregationalism of to-day stands for in our national life, and "the average church member," for whose benefit the book was written, will assuredly be the gainer in knowledge, and hence in the intelligent appreciation of the service that this branch of the Christian Church is rendering in the world. The whole story occupies less than two hundred and seventy five small pages, told in the pungent style for which Dr. Bacon's writings are distinguished.

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"The Genius of Methodism," by William Pitt MacVey (Cincinnati: Jennings & Pye), is an attempt to expound and interpret the underlying principles of the great Methodist movement. The book is less a recital of facts than a discussion of the intellectual and moral forces that were behind the facts, and from which the growth of Methodism derives its true significance.

"Pilgrimages to Methodist Shrines" (Jennings & Pye) is a series of sketches by William Henry Meredith, "not a book-maker, but a Methodist preacher and pastor who loves his Church and is intensely interested in its history." Such chapter titles as the following will

give an idea of the contents of the book: "Tracking the Forerunner of Methodism," "John Wesley's First Methodist Circuit," "The Bridal Home of Charles Wesley," "John Wesley and the Duda," "The Oldest Methodist Church in America."

In a volume of "Essays for the Day" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), Dr. Theodore T. Munger, for many years pastor of the United Church on the Green at New Haven, gathers some discussions of religion and literature, several of which have appeared in magazines during the past few years. The introductory paper, perhaps the most important of those contained in this volume, is entitled "The Church: Some Immediate Questions." This paper appeared in a recent number of the *Atlantic Monthly*. This is followed by an essay on "The Interplay of Christianity and Literature." There is also a study of Horace Bushnell, a commentary on "The Scarlet Letter," and "A Layman's Reflections on Music."

Several new books have appeared on the moral teaching of Shakespearean plays. Richard G. Moulton, professor of literature in English in the University of Chicago, who has revealed

the Bible to so many who never knew of its literary and philosophic beauty in his latest book, "The Moral System of Shakespeare" (Macmillan), has endeavored to make a text-book of Shakespeare for students of literary clubs or scholastic institutions which shall set forth a point of view something like this: Besides the interest and amusement in the plays of Shakespeare,

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there is also a great philosophical interest somewhat analogous to that of experiments in physical science. He endeavors to make this book "a popular illustration of fiction as the experimental side of philosophy." He presents the more popular terms to illustrate such root ideas as Heroism and Moral Balance, Wrong and Retribution, and others. His chapters have such suggestive headings as "The Moral Significance of Humor," "Shakespeare's World in Its Moral Complexity," and "Comedy as Life in Equilibrium." It is doubtful whether he adds anything to what has already been written on the philosophy of the "Immortal William," but he certainly presents a compact, a thought-provoking, and an illuminating summary.

Dr. Frank Chapman Sharp comes at the subject from a slightly different angle in "Shakespeare's Portrayal of the Moral Life" (Scribners). Dr. Sharp, who is assistant professor of philosophy in the University of Wisconsin, is the philosopher as truly as Dr. Moulton

is the man of letters. His book, he says, is "an attempt to lay before the reader the results of the observations of a man who was one of the most gifted students of human nature the world over." Dr. Sharp believes that Shakespeare's powers, at their best, must be sought for in the works of the third and fourth periods, according to the common classification. The most material for investigation, however, is found in the four great tragedies, the Roman and Greek histories, and in a few of the romances and the so-called comedies, like "All's Well That Ends Well" and "Measure for Measure."

A NEW NOVEL AND A NEW EDITION.

A very charming book, both in subject matter and treatment, is "Fat of the Land" (Macmillan), by John Williams Streeter. This story of an American farm is full of quaint, straightforward, practical philosophy, based on the actual experiences of the author, a genial Chicago physician, in carrying out his great dream, "to own and work land." He declares he is not imaginative, could not write a romance if he tried, and does not claim to have spent his sixty thousand dollars without making some serious mistakes. But there is much poetry in the facts of his practical experience, in the homely realities of his actual contact with the soil, and the reader is quite ready to concede his claim that, despite his mistakes, he has solved the problem and "proved that an intelligent farmer can live in luxury on the fat of the land."

A very handsome edition of Charles Kingsley's complete works, with an introduction by Maurice Kingsley, comes from the press of J. F. Taylor & Co. Kingsley ought to be read more. There is something nourishing in his style and helpful morally in the broad strokes with which he paints social and moral progress in the middle of the last century.

THE CARTOONS OF A CENTURY.

An exceedingly interesting and illuminating collection of cartoons has been compiled by Arthur Bartlett Maurice and Frederic Taber Cooper, under the title "The History of the Nineteenth Century in Caricature" (Dodd, Mead & Co.). There are few aids to the correct reading of history equal to a cartoon collection arranged by subject for the period under consideration. This volume is profusely illustrated, and the cartoons presented are arranged under the following general heads: "The Napoleonic Era," "From Waterloo through the Crimean War," "The Civil and the Franco-Prussian Wars," and "The End of the Century." Most of the representative cartoon artists, from Hogarth to Oppen, Davenport, Nast, and Tenniel, are sketched sympathetically, and famous specimens of their work are presented. Modern French and German cartoonists are also considered. There has never been a time in the whole history of comic art, the authors say, when caricature has held such sway and maintained such dignity, and has enlisted in her service so many workers of the first talent and rank.



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